THE SCHOOL REVIEW
A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XXVII NOVEMBER, 1919 NUMBER 9

# PRESENT-DAY NEEDS IN HIGHER EDUCATION[1]

H. C. MORRISON
School of Education, University of Chicago

## THE CONSTITUTIONAL PURPOSE OF EDUCATION

I hope to interest you this evening in our great national need of a more specific and intensive influence of higher education upon the masses of the population.

The ultimate legal purpose of all our education in the United States is now, and always has been, social organization and betterment. That was the assigned justification and purpose of our early colonial legislation; it is the ground upon which charters for private foundations have been sought; it has been the continuing purpose of a great mass of legislation down to our own day. Our ancestors in 1647 did not set up a public-school system as a co-operative enterprise for the education of their children, but in order "that learning may not be buried in the grave of our fathers"—a social purpose.

Through the long years, when the constitutional right of the state to enforce compulsory education laws, to maintain high schools, normal schools, and universities was being assailed, a long series of decisions of the courts of last resort affirmed and reaffirmed the principle that the state might make very large use of its powers in the support of education so long as the

[1] Address delivered at the Thirty-First Educational Conference of the Academies and High Schools in Relations with the University of Chicago, May 8, 1919.

purpose of education was held to be the safety of the commonwealth. So compelling has been this line of reasoning, that the constitutional right of the state to maintain education of any desired extent whatsoever has ceased to be seriously questioned. So it has come to pass that the social purpose of education has become the recognized purpose, not only in the minds of educational thinkers, but also in the whole body of our law.

### INEVITABLE SOCIAL EFFECT OF EDUCATION

Before proceeding to the main topic, I ask your indulgence in the review of certain typical instances which show how inevitable is the effect of education upon the character of the population.

The first case is that of the Madawaska territory, so called, in the state of Maine. A considerable section of what is now the northern part of that state was assigned to the United States by the Webster–Ashburton treaty of 1842. The state found itself, in consequence, exercising jurisdiction over a population which was alien in race, in language, in civil institutions, and economic life. The region was further separated from the seat of government by two hundred miles of wilderness, and was not brought within direct rail communication until the closing years of the nineteenth century. Nevertheless, the state established a system of common schools admirably calculated to Americanize the population. Within two generations the effect had become so marked that today you can see how a distinctly different civilization distinguishes these people from their kindred across the St. John River, who have grown up under a different system of schools, but whose life is not otherwise different.

The instance is of course typical of our whole Americanization history, a process unnoticed and taken for granted but, when you think of it, as stupendous a piece of engineering as

any of those works which change the face of Nature and astonish the world.

Another instance which seems clear is that of the comparatively sudden crystallization of the public conviction which has led to the adoption of the eighteenth amendment. For many years the liquor question had been a live issue, but almost everywhere a local issue. Maine and Kansas were the only states in which even states as wholes seemed committed to state-wide prohibition as a state policy, and both states were looked upon in this matter with amused toleration mingled with contempt. Other states for certain periods would enact state-wide statutory prohibition, and many states made it a matter of municipal option. Devoted men and women were agitating the question for three generations, with substantial progress it is true, but nowhere to the extent of securing popular conviction *en masse*.

Suddenly, state after state adopted state-wide prohibition, and with bewildering speed, the country moved on to ratify a prohibitory amendment to the federal constitution, only three of the smaller states failing to ratify. The great cities and the densely settled industrial regions are fairly stunned at what has happened. The most influential part of the press has been on the whole against the amendment. The liquor evil is no worse today than it has been at any time for half a century or more. The workers for national prohibition are on the whole not the same kind of people who figured in earlier days as temperance reformers. What has happened?

It early became evident that progress would be a matter of education, and rather more than a generation ago statutory requirements began to appear in the various states prescribing in all elementary schools, and sometimes in all schools, instruction in the harmful physiological effects of alcohol, tobacco, and narcotics. The instruction was often poor and much of it wildly contrary to the ascertained truth. Still a whole genera-

tion of school children had held up before it the picture of alcohol especially as a destroying influence. The individual effect in most cases was probably comparatively small. Children, as they grew up, in most cases used alcoholic drinks much as they would have without instruction. But the mass effect was tremendous. The typical advocate of national prohibition is a moderate drinker. As the generation which was in school from about 1880 became the dominant generation, almost the only intellectual experience which it had had in common became a mass conviction, and because of the fact that school children reach maturity substantially together, the crystallization of mass conviction was sudden. The prohibition wave has swept over the country in a striking approximation to the amount of time which is required for a single group of children to pass through the school system.

The next instance which I shall use as a reminder is too painfully familiar to require description. I refer to the use made of education, both elementary and higher, by the Prussian state. With devilish efficiency, but without conspicuous pedagogical ingenuity for the attainment of a devilish purpose, a whole nation was made the willing and enthusiastic tool of a barbarous and unscrupulous autocracy.

Finally, I select an instance from our own national life which I admit is not clear. It is however suggestive and it illustrates how the free and easy ways of education in a democracy may produce evil, as well as good, social effects.

Most of you younger people have through all your school lives been indoctrinated with the ideal of service. It was not always so. When those of us who are now in middle life and past middle life were in school, the emphasis of school influence tended to be laid on individual success. There were exceptions made by devoted teachers, but in general, ambitions were stirred and urged on by tales of achievement—the bound-

less opportunities of American life were painted in glowing colors. How often we were told by school directors, in want of a subject for a talk to school children, that any of us boys might become President! It has perhaps taken some of us long to get over the delusions thus created. None of us was worse off to start with than Jackson, or Johnson, or Garfield. The great name of Lincoln was likely to be held out to us, not so much as that of the apostle of human freedom and the clear-eyed savior of the Union, as that of the rail-splitter who became President. The queen of the schoolroom sciences was arithmetic and the crown of arithmetic was dollars and cents.

Now, all this was in itself worthy enough, and very likely to it is to be credited much of the marvelous initiative of the typical American—but note another social effect. The quality which we have to regret perhaps more fundamentally than any other is the intense and often reckless individualism of the dominant generation. It reveals itself in our economic life and creates our chief economic problems. It deprives us of the political service of our strongest men to an extent which is not true of any other nation. To charge it up as an inevitable concomitant of democracy is to deny democracy. I have faith to believe that the splendid spirit of service which is the much more dominant note of the school of today will, within another generation, produce results which will give quite another color to our society.

### GENUINE SOCIAL PROGRESS THROUGH EDUCATION

The world is very enthusiastic for social progress today. Even the reactionaries admit that it has to come, and each group is formulating its own program. Marvelous, innumerable schemes are announced for changing human nature by legislation, or even by the expeditious process of killing off the prosperous. The history of progress by such methods is

discouraging. You cannot change human nature except by biological processes beyond our control, but you can enlighten human nature by mass education.

People don't often realize the significance of modern compulsory, universal education. When you put a whole generation to school, as you do, you create a power which is blood brother to the great cosmic forces. The boys and girls who are in school today will hold the balance of power in the elections of a decade and a half hence or less. What you put into the schools today, or what gets into them, will appear in society tomorrow. Designing men may get control and mold society to their own ends. The schools may be allowed to run wild as the notions of individual teachers and administrators dictate their policy. The people may arrive at definite educational convictions and express them in their schools. In that case the society of tomorrow will truly reflect the popular aspirations of today. Steady, sane, genuine, and lasting social progress can come in no other way.

### MASS EDUCATION AND LIBERAL EDUCATION

For the sake of clear thinking, it is important that we shall distinguish between two conceptions of the practical use and purpose of educational institutions, both of which are commonly held among us. They are not mutually exclusive in theory but in practice we tend to use only one conception at a time. I shall designate them by the terms "mass education" and "liberal education." The first looks toward the social use of education; the second looks toward the effect upon the individual. The first tends to be definite and practical, though not necessarily vocational; the second tends to be indefinite and to sanction its practices by the vague notion of culture. The reason why we have these two different conceptions is probably to be found in the fact that our institutions are widely diverse in their historical origins. We have been

trying for about three-quarters of a century, without conspicuous success, to make three different kinds of institutions pull in tandem as a single team toward two separate goals, the university and life-work.

It is not an extreme statement to say that we have not yet evolved a clean-cut, all-American conception of institutional education. What we do have is: (1) an elementary school which is a modified German conception; (2) a secondary school and college which serve a single institutional purpose but which are wholly separate in organization and administration, and both of which are deeply rooted in the traditions of English aristocratic education; (3) a university which has thus far been unable to divest itself of secondary work, and at times even of elementary work, and which tends to be full of German notions of procedure and of scholarship.

We have for many years been struggling somewhat uncertainly toward institutions which are clearly and closely American in their adaptation to American life and institutions. Up to date, the net result is a justifiable elementary school of six grades, and that is found only in the more progressive states. You have gone much farther in the West than have we in the East, largely, perhaps, because tradition is not as deeply rooted with you as it is with us, but chiefly because your higher institutions are in the main responsible to the people, and ours in the main are not.

Now, if we are concerned with the integration and rapid development of a highly intelligent, efficient, and happy society in the United States by educational process—and there is no other way by which it can be done—three essential things must be done. First, we must organize two institutions reaching from the twelfth to not later than the twentieth year in the typical individual, each of them justified by the needs and capacities of the growing youth, as found by scientific

investigation rather than by the conclusions of high-school and college politics. Secondly, the typical youth must either be ready for higher professional study at twenty years, or be put in possession of an earning power which will make possible marriage at an early date after leaving school. Thirdly, the programs of the new secondary and the new tertiary institutions must contain large elements very definitely and very concretely related to the kind of society which popular aspirations foreshadow.

Through the product of our higher institutions there must go into society such a body of valid conceptions and methods of thinking that the whole social mass will become capable of constantly adjusting itself to the enormously complex, and very rapidly changing, conditions of modern civilization.

I shall be compelled to limit myself to this third phase of organization, to the program content of higher institutions—the high school and college as they are today.

## THE PAST SERVICE OF THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

Up to date, the elementary school has rendered an immense service in the direction of national solidarity, and it might have accomplished even more. It is wholly doubtful that we should have held together as a people during the past four years but for the school of the impressionable pre-adolescent years which has been the substantially common experience of the great mass of the American people. It has placed in the social mass the power, and to a great extent the habit, of reading.

The limitation of the elementary school in the direction of mass education undoubtedly lies in the fact that it cannot communicate the bodies of ideas which are essential to an understanding of the modern world. The pupils are not sufficiently mature, either in experience or in mentality.

### MASS EDUCATION AN OBLIGATION UPON THE HIGHER INSTITUTIONS

For this reason, enormously important as the elementary school will continue to be, the vitally important part of mass education must be done by the higher institutions. It may be that the compulsory school years will soon be extended to eighteen or even later, but in any event the higher schools are capable of powerful indirect mass effect by infiltration.

We already have one good typical set of cases of mass education by infiltration from higher schools. I refer to the effect of a century of physical science teaching. Within a comparatively brief period, the attitude of the mass of the population toward the physical universe was still one of superstition, kindred to that of the stone age. It has not yet entirely disappeared, but one has only to consult the newspaper files of thirty to fifty years ago to become impressed with the change which has taken place within a generation.

What has been accomplished by bringing the light of reason and truth, with respect to the physical universe, within the vision of the masses, can equally well be accomplished by the teaching of biologic and economic and political truth.

### REQUIRED COURSES

The elementary school has owed its profound and quick-acting influence upon society to the fact that it acts directly upon all its pupils. Elective courses below the seventh grade are to all intents nil. For the sake of maximum mass effect, it seems evident that certain types of courses in higher institutions, which are now elective, ought to be required. Society has the right to demand that all people who hold the bachelor's degree shall be well-grounded in those studies which are most intimately related to social welfare and progress, and to the safety of our political institutions.

### CONTROL IN A DEMOCRACY

If I have made myself at all clear up to this point, I realize that I have been setting up a theory which may be held to bear a likeness to the Prussian theory of subordination of education to the purposes of the state, a theory which is as abhorrent in a democracy as in an autocracy. Not so.

The state must set up the administrative machinery for the establishment and carrying on of schools. The state, as the only institution by which organized society can definitely express itself, may go farther and ordain that certain courses shall be taught. But the moment the state, by legislative or executive act, undertakes to prescribe what is truth and what is not, or to suppress the teaching of the truth, at that moment Prussianism rears its head in exultation.

On the other hand, intellectual anarchy is as bad as intellectual Prussianism. If we cannot abide the suppression of the teaching of the truth, so equally ought we to refuse to abide the instructor's use of his position to expound opinions which have no pretense of established validity. It is outrageous that any youth should be denied the truth, but it is equally a violation of his freedom if in his youth a man shall have been indoctrinated with the peculiar opinions of his teacher.

The democratic principle of control is the ancient democratic maxim, "Ye shall know the truth and the truth shall make you free."

### KNOWLEDGE OF THE NATURE OF LIVING ORGANISMS

Of the mass needs of which we have been speaking, I place first a knowledge of the nature of living organisms, which comes through courses in general biology and its related sciences. I think that if all high-school and college graduates could be as thoroughly trained in biology as they now are in mathematics and linguistics, or even in physics and chemistry,

we should presently find that the public mind would become capable of certain socially advantageous reactions of which it is now largely incapable.

Since the progressive thinking of the modern world is largely by the methods of biology, it is important to society that all educated persons should be accustomed to thinking in that way. Very few educated people have ever received biological training. The result is that in social undertakings ranging all the way from high-school methods to the construction of state and federal legislation, educated people are prone to act as if all individuals other than themselves, and society in general, were constructed upon mechanical principles. When you attempt to secure public attention to such matters as education, public health, and social welfare of various necessary kinds, you are likely to find it very difficult to make expert ideas register by reason of the fact that the public mind has no appropriate apperceptive mass.

To draw the illustration closer—there are few social problems above the horizon of which the ultimate solution does not rest in a greater or less degree upon genetics. You approach these problems, you erect palliative measures and you make some progress, but you soon find that you are only getting deeper and deeper into a bottomless pool of expense and effort. There is no solution but in the improvement of the stock. And yet we are appalled at the thought that we should use such intelligence in controlling and eliminating noxious human strains as the husbandman uses in the case of his plants and animals. We cannot bring ourselves to teach our children the truth about life, but leave them to learn it as they may with incalculable harm to the individual and to society. You see the social mind is still biologically superstitious, just as it once was geographically and, much more recently, mechanically superstitious.

Closely related sciences are applied sociology and education. If we are ever to reach a time when the general public will be capable of educational and sociological convictions, our high-school and college graduates must themselves first receive such universal training in the elements of these sciences in order that they might be educationally and sociologically intelligent.

From my own experience and observation as a student of education charged with the administration of educational interests, I have acquired the deliberate conviction that the greatest single obstacle to educational progress is the educated class. Educated men tend to understand only the education which they themselves have received. They are educated, but they themselves are ignorant of the meaning and process of education. They are the leaders of opinion; they insist upon the practices under which they were brought up; they scout the advice of the expert; and then they turn around and score the failures of those whom they are pleased to call educators. Their editorials and magazine articles read precisely like those of the old defenders of "vital fluid," or like those of the old assailants of the doctrine of the sphericity of the earth.

Few educational products of the war are likely to be of more lasting influence than the mental tests and measurements which were carried out in the army and navy. The disclosures, which received considerable publicity, struck the public imagination. People came to realize not merely that people differ greatly in ability, which they already knew, but also that science can give a somewhat definite measure of differences and that differences are more than was suspected. If that part of psychology, in which this material is included, could be made a part of the equipment of the college graduate, it would go far toward convincing us all that we really do differ in mental ability, both quantitatively and qualitatively. In

time, the knowledge diffused among the masses of the population would help to dissipate several political superstitions which came to us from the French Revolution, and the result would work toward the furtherance of true democracy.

And so, I think, required courses of considerable extent in general biology, with shorter courses in education and applied sociology and psychology, ought to be one of the main supports of the program of the secondary school and college.

### APPRECIATION OF NATURAL LAW IN THE ECONOMIC WORLD

The study of economics has been almost neglected in the high school and it is seldom a required subject in college. The result is that there is little appreciation among the masses of the population of the reign of natural law in the economic world. As always in such cases, the attitude of the general public, including a great part of the educated public, is one of superstition, easily influenced by demagogues on the one hand, and by the vagaries of well-meaning but uninformed and untrained visionaries on the other.

The world finds itself in one of its great economic crises, with political power in the hands of the masses, and the masses without the guiding power of ascertained truth widely known to them.

Nor do we need to go to Russia for instances. In our own country we have fallen very deeply into the primitive economic error of supposing that we can create wealth out of nothing. Rich and poor, labor and capital alike, combine among themselves to force up their income to meet the cost of a standard of expensive living, only to find that they must do it again and again and never with any substantial and permanent advantage, happy in the folly of believing that wealth can be produced by agreement, by legislation, by executive decree.

If the war between labor and capital is ever settled at all, short of the complete wreck of western civilization, it will be

settled because both sides learn economic truth and are both compelled by their knowledge and conviction of the reign of natural law in the economic world.

Let us turn to the other side, the side of applied political economy. Governments, federal, state, and municipal, have to use wealth in the performance of their functions and the wealth which they use is secured mainly by taxation. Taxes are, in the last analysis, levied, or at least sanctioned, by the voting power of the people. There is a limit to the amount which even the most willing can tax themselves. It is in the highest degree important that there shall be diffused among the masses of the population some understanding of the nature of taxation and some realization of the principle that the taxing power of the government is not a fairy's wand by which wealth for government use can be created. The need will be very much greater in the future than it has been hitherto, for the cost of the war has put an end, perhaps forever, to the happy-go-lucky taxation of the past.

And so, I think that effective required courses in economics ought to be found throughout our high-school and college programs, beginning as early as the seventh grade.

### A KNOWLEDGE OF THE NATURE OF GOVERNMENT AND OF THE AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

I reserve the most important obligation of higher institutions of learning to the education of the masses until the end. That obligation I conceive to be the indoctrination of high-school and college students with an understanding of the nature of government itself, and particularly with an understanding of that form of democratic government which has grown up among the English-speaking peoples, and which is still in process of evolution in our own nation.

I include the study of the nature of government advisedly. During the past four years the constant presentation of a war

against autocracy seems to have built up a veritable popular obsession. To an amazing extent, even among highly educated people—our parlor Bolshevists, for instance—there seems to have been conceived the notion that any government is autocracy.

We are confronted, for instance, with the political enormity widely advocated even by some of our most influential journals that freedom has been destroyed in the case of the eighteenth amendment. You may think as you will about the wisdom of prohibition, but it argues a vital misconception of civil liberty if you hold that the regular, lawful, constitutional exercise of authority by the legislatives of forty-five states can impair the blessings of liberty under the law.

In widely separated parts of the country, even bodies of teachers have more or less succeeded in convincing the public that the lawful representatives of the whole people, in boards of education, or even in state legislatures, cannot justly adopt regulations or enact laws without first consulting and securing the permission of the teaching class. That is not democracy, but rather sovietism.

In short, we have before us a situation which argues a very considerable loss of political sense. So far as this situation exists, it exemplifies the forebodings of the founders of the republic that their work could not last except on the basis of popular education. They saw, or at least some of them did, that there is no capacity toward self-governing societies which is inherent in human nature, but rather that people can govern themselves only as they learn how. It is ridiculous to assume that the indefinite accomplishment implied in the term education can assure political competency. A man is politically educated only when he has acquired a knowledge and understanding of the principles of government. And many a backwoods town-officer has a better political education than many educated people.

How then has political education failed to keep pace with our national growth?

In the first place, we have absorbed a very large population which, however great its yearning for freedom, has not the social heritage of working democracy which is the possession of the original population and their descendants.

Secondly, informal political education is not nearly as widespread as it once was. In the early days, and for perhaps three generations afterward, the conditions of American life were such that a peculiarly efficient informal political education was going on all the time. The primary assembly held a much larger place than now. The problems arising out of the period of constitutional development reaching from 1787 to 1865 and after were acute, they were of universal interest, and they were essentially political and not, as now, overshadowed by economic elements.

Meantime, somebody, presumably the Genius of Misrule, had invented the city government, the one political institution which we, as a people, have thus far failed to understand.

During the whole period, our higher schools have given but scant attention to the study of our political institutions. And so it is not surprising that in the generation born during and soon after the Civil War, and particularly in the newer generation which is just now coming to maturity, there should be a great deal of political ignorance and indifference.

What have we in the schools today?

In the first place, we have almost everywhere, in the elementary and secondary schools, civil government, but in a position and with a time allowance greatly inferior to those assigned to mathematics, or linguistics, or physical science, or history. A very considerable number of high-school graduates are expected to know more about the civil government which was operated by consuls than about that which is operated by mayors and governors. But at the best, civil government is

merely a study of the machinery of government. It nowhere gets at the fundamentals of democratic government, or of the institutions which are calculated to guarantee civil liberty under the law, or of the nature and limitations of liberty itself.

We also profess to teach citizenship, or at least to inculcate the civil and social virtues. But citizenship is a term as broad in its connotations as good moral character. You can't teach good citizenship except as you teach a multitude of elements which enter into good citizenship, much of which is of course done.

The schools have been beyond praise in their successful inculcation of patriotism, but patriotism is not necessarily good citizenship nor political understanding.

There remain college courses in political science, usually well calculated for the purpose which we have in mind, but for the most part they are elective and are taken chiefly by prospective law students.

It seems to be needful to bring back into our common life by institutional means the understanding and knowledge of Anglo-Saxon democracy and particularly of its American developments which were once constantly replenished by the informal education of current events. Specifically, I mean those institutions of civil liberty and constitutional government which were vindicated in the struggles of our ancestors with the Stuart kings, and which were extended and applied to the needs of a democratic society spread over a continent during the first century of our national life. The data for such studies are to be found in the constitutional history of our race, and particularly in the decisions of our courts of last resort.

It is needful that our people shall everywhere be indoctrinated with a clear understanding of the principle that liberty under the law is the only possible freedom; that the rights of every man are strictly conditioned by the equal rights of his

neighbor; that the hateful essence of autocracy is personal government just as much in America as in Germany, and that its antithesis is not anarchy but the reign of law; that free government is government by Lincoln's immortal formula; and that soviet government, whether by proletariat or plutocracy, whether recognized or invisible, is more abominable than even autocracy. For this purpose we need first-class required courses in high school and college.

I am not of those who believe that political democracy has yet reached its final expression, but it seems to me very clear that free institutions develop only as each advance is rooted in popular knowledge of the earlier growth. It is the peculiar glory of the men of the English-speaking race that they never have had a revolution of the French or Russian type, and yet it is upon our institutions that the free governments of the rest of the world have been patterned. With all our faults, with all our admitted and sometimes discouraging failures, we should still be sorry to exchange our democracy for any of those which have grown out of revolutions.

# A GRADING STANDARD

S. O. ROREM
Principal, East Junior High School, Sioux City, Iowa

When every pupil knows how to learn and what to study, and does it when it should be done, grading-problems and grading-plans will be obsolete. As nearly as present-day observation can determine, that day is not at hand. If confessions of older people are true, there is scarcely an hour when we can omit the checking-up systems. The business man has to be driven through many experiences which he knows will be good for him. Circumstances and indisposition must be conquered by grown-up folks day after day because reputation or profit is at stake. And very few persons, young or old, will be educated outside of schoolrooms unless necessity drives them to it.

Presumably, primary pupils work for fun, intermediate pupils work from duty and obedience, high-school pupils begin to work for a reason, and college students prepare for social or business preparation. But there is no point at which the temporary goal of "grades" is not a spur. Anyone who doubts needs only to recall which was uppermost in his thought during his schooldays at the end of the report periods—What is my grade? or Am I now better fitted for my place in the world? Then he is invited to reflect upon the number of days, when indisposed or ill, he would have skipped classes if the attendance record—or the grade—were not to be endangered by indulging in the whim. If that reflection is true to fact, grading-plans may well be considered.

What is a grade?

What merit is required for an A grade?

One pupil who commits his lessons receives A from his teacher; another, who in the same class constantly finds some-

thing like it outside of school, in his experience, in his work, in his play doesn't keep his mind on the lesson and receives F. These same pupils receive diametrically opposite grades and appreciation from another teacher. Is there anything about grade-merit which can be standardized?

Until a standard is established, every whim of a teacher will be the grading-plan.

"I like to have my pupils think," said one teacher.

"I like to hear my own words," said another.

"Pupils must be able to remember what they study," said one.

"I always spend about two weeks trying to find out what each teacher likes to have me do," said one high-school girl.

"I never know what to do in that teacher's class," said one eighth-grade boy.

"One teacher says do it one way, and the other one says the opposite," said a mechanically trained boy.

"Do the way *I* say in *my* class, and the way *she* says when you are with *her*," one high-school teacher announced.

"This teacher doesn't do things the way I learned them last term," whimpered a fourteen-year-old girl.

"A bright pupil will do his own thinking, moreover, in spite of school methods," said President W. T. Harris in his essay "How I Was Educated."

If citizenship is the aim of education, it seems logical that the essentials of citizenship be employed as the mile-posts by which we guide and measure progress. The following propositions in the development of a standard are offered upon this supposition: Actual living is broader than schoolroom commands, and obedience to individual possibilities presents keener interest than obedience to school rules.

Any plan must be arbitrary. It must be elastic and changeable. But let the old method be succored until at

least something as good is ready for its place. The start must be made from the point at which we now stand.

First, there must be some standard which is good enough for pupils to reveal in the results of their efforts. Some one point of achievement must be selected in order that others may be comparatively higher or lower. "Good-enough," will have to be the level, and there must be gradations higher and lower. These stages have ordinarily been shown in symbols of letters or numerals. It is those symbols which pupils have hoped for in the extent to which they have "been good" and "studied hard" and "learned the lessons." That "good-enough" point may well be the middle point of what has been the marking system—87½—usually designated by a letter which shows that the grade is between 85 and 90, as the middle point between 100 per cent, Perfect or A, and 75 per cent, which is Poor or E.

With 75 per cent as the vanishing point of acceptability in most marking systems, the symbols rise in steps of five points each as 75–79, 80–84, 85–89, 90–94, 95–100. If we let these groups be represented by FIVE, FOUR, THREE, TWO, and ONE, instead of by letters or numerals, there will be less confusion. On a basis of actual rating these groups might have to range from 50 to 100 in order to show real comparative variations, but the premise remains the same whether on a basis of ten points or five points to the group.

It is immaterial, also, whether we use only one group which shows that the work is ACCEPTABLE, or two properly named groups, or three, or four, or five. It may be questioned, further, whether there exist five recognizable variations in pupils' abilities within the limit of acceptable achievement. Still it has been done, and will continue to be done long after this effort is made. It is, of course, understood that no pupil fits exactly into any one group, but if teachers use their judg-

ments within the limit of the requirements mentioned below rather than upon recital of what the book "says," the pupil will be nearer to equality of educational opportunity. However, one thing is certain: He will be in the "good-enough" group, above it, or below it. What we are concerned about is—What puts him there?

A THREE (85 to 89) is "good-enough" when 75 per cent is considered the passing grade. Now what should be required of the pupil to merit this rank? Eight essentials are stated: (1) willingness to apply himself through the class hour; (2) alertness and awareness during the class discussions; (3) attentiveness to assignments; (4) arrival at class with tasks completed in good manner and with reasonable freedom from carelessness; (5) prompt response to corrections and personal suggestions; (6) contribution to class discussions occasionally; (7) general vigor in attacking problems with ample curiosity and inquisitiveness when he finds "something different"; (8) retentiveness of GENERAL plan and main principles of his study course *recollectively* rather than through memory as a definite project.

There they are—without a word about "what the teacher says." The eight arbitrary requirements seem to cover every expected legitimate external sign of a pupil's effort. These signs may seem too lax or too stern in proportion to the amount a teacher prefers to have pupils recite the lesson or to have pupils think for themselves. But acceptance of them is necessarily temporary. With a THREE as the norm, or center point, the variations converge toward it or branch out from it. To justify the eight principles of classwork achievement, watch their application one by one to the business world. In business they represent in order: co-operation and aggressiveness, sharp wit, taking orders, despatch, adaptability, productiveness, initiative, and clear thinking. The fact that different phrasing could have been used, or that other qualities might

have been added, does not alter the fact that the eight requirements must be present before we can say, "good-enough."

NEGATIVELY, there are some points which sidetrack teachers in the matter of grading, giving a false standard of merit to the discouragement of a majority of the class. The following types of pupils should be analyzed:

1. Parrot-memorizers, who have been falsely trained.
2. Rote-learners, who are lost when one word or step is gone.
3. Visitors (teacher's pets) who get so well acquainted with the teacher that he doesn't like to mark them low.
4. Stellar-lights, who are known by uplifted hands, always.
5. Bold pupils, who can talk without saying much.
6. Timid pupils, who know but can't say it.

In the next higher range there must be flexible adjustment in the rating of achievement—so much so that it seems unnecessary to say, "To this point a TWO must go; to that point a ONE must go." Care must be taken, also, that the teacher's ability is not made the point of satisfactory work. The pupil's rank among his fellows must determine that.

A ONE or TWO (90 to 100) must be better than "good-enough." There are certain comparative qualifications which set the student in this new rank. They will stand comparison with the group under THREE. The first item under THREE should be reread and followed by the first item mentioned in this new group, and others in the same manner. These are presented summarily by: (1) eagerness to tackle what is difficult; (2) interest in, and increasing the interest in, class discussions; (3) dependability in taking assignments and "a little more"; (4) completion of tasks promptly, neatly, and thoroughly; (5) comparative freedom from teacher's corrections and suggestions; (6) discovery of practical relations and uses for school work; (7) dependability in getting through difficult tasks; (8) ability to hold relations and rethink the problem.

What wouldn't the good business man give for a dozen young men who meet these requirements!

Then we must go below "good-enough" to learn how we shall maintain the general grouping of five limits within which we classify the results of student effort. A FOUR based upon the provisions of THREE would necessarily be slightly less than "good-enough." Here, too, it would be folly to say that a certain demarcation limits the FOUR and introduces the FIVE. Just as the TWO and ONE are comparative gradations upward in the line of the eight requirements, the FOUR and FIVE are gradations downward. Rather than go point by point along the course of the eight provisions, as was just done in the upward view, it may be more profitable to furnish a parallel list of the reasons why the FOUR and FIVE are not "good-enough": (1) they do their work too hastily or fritter away time they need; (2) they seem to be listless and inattentive; (3) they too frequently "misunderstand" assignments; (4) their work is too often fragmentary and careless; (5) they make the same errors over and over; (6) they seldom know anything that "wasn't in the lesson"; (7) they are likely to balk at "what they haven't done before"; (8) they do hold fragmentary "snap-shots" of what they have learned, but seldom display any retentiveness of relations, reasons, etc.

Any pupil who had all the defects mentioned here would not be worth more than 30 per cent, and certainly could not hold a job in a good business establishment. Still these shortcomings might be evident to such a low degree that the pupil could conscientiously be placed into group FIVE or even into group FOUR. If a pupil drops into FIVE in two characteristics, stands in ONE in five qualities, and stands in THREE in one (an improbable case) the teacher is not relieved of using judgment because of this requirement list. There must be as keen insight into the variables as ever. The advantage is that the attention of both teacher and pupil can be directed

toward development for citizenship to replace the narrow requirements of separate subjects and variable teachers' whims.

Pupils who fall below "good-enough" are likely to be those who have not understood the reason for being in school, whose interests lie outside of what they read or hear in class, but who are willing to go through the motions if the teacher insists sternly enough. Here we find many athletes, some boy-crazy girls and girl-crazy boys, most pupils whose parents *make* them go to school or get to work, many mechanically inclined pupils, many pupils who like to draw, and many who wish to earn something and do something worth while.

These pupils must be shown some sense to school—their youthful sense. Then they will take care of themselves like all the rest in school alertness, attentiveness, willingness, and achievement. These pupils have ability, energy, ambition, but they can't see the sense or use of all this school work and never did. Starting from everyday experiences in leading up to school work will find these pupils alert and "on their toes." They are full of practical knowledge, which is the only basis upon which they, or anyone else, will awaken to the real value of school work. They usually drop out of school early, driven out by questions and answers based upon MEMORY.

If there were a group SIX, it would constitute the failures who registered between 0 and 74. But failures *should* not be, despite the norms, curves, and proofs which show that from 5 to 14 per cent of pupils *must* fail in various courses. Two reasons are the only ones permissible for failure: Can't and Won't.

As for the Can't, a stage of imbecility is implied either in the pupil or in the subject-matter he is expected to master. In the Won't case, there obtains a similar condition on the part of the pupil. In either case the pupil should be removed to the proper institution. Inability, when it does occur, is

much less frequent than it is heralded. The occasional incompetent is to be pitied or put under a private teacher. As for the Won'ts, there are few who become so or remain so, unless the condition can be traced to the teachers' source (not necessarily the present ones). Someone along the line has accused them over and over, has disparagingly compared them with the bright pupils, or has hopelessly succumbed to their stubbornness. The parents' negative influence must not be omitted as a possible molding factor.

But what can be done for the portion of a class which now is listed among the failures which should not have been? Here may be inserted a short pedagogical preachment upon class methods and textbook content to support the statement that failures should not be. However, it is hardly probable that failures will disappear, because the kind of teachers who are to adapt the textbook content to proper class methods to reach these pupils is not likely to be numerous enough and these teachers are not likely to be receiving sufficient remuneration. It takes strong appreciation by way of approval and salary to inspire teachers to meet this need. This is what it requires:

1. The teacher must welcome the problem pupil as gladly as the bright one.

2. All pupils must be set on the same basis regarding the study-subject by a careful search among pupils as to their appreciation, their understanding, and their present knowledge of it before the class is permitted to work.

3. There must be such a motivating of the subject that every pupil in the class may find an excuse for saying that he likes the subject. Such opening words from a teacher as, "We shall start with page 165 this semester and go to page 380 by the end of the term," have driven out of school pupils and more teachers. An opposite teacher-type whose salary was doubled within a very few years, refused to permit pupils to

open their books until they had a good reason for doing so. She spent a few days vitalizing and practicalizing the subject. Someone asked, "How do you get pupils to work their heads off for you?" The reply was, "They have had the notion knocked out of their heads that they are working for me. They are having the time of their lives finding out something for themselves."

4. Every step of class progress must be made real. This requires courage beyond belief and work beyond expectation. First, however, it must be made almost criminal to accept blindly any idea which requires understanding, to accept from the pupil an answer when the process is required, to accept quotations when ideas are required, or to speak in idioms when thoughts are to be expressed.

Grading is not real; despite the FIVE, FOUR, THREE, TWO, and ONE groupings it is only comparative, of course. But grading makes or mars pupils; sometimes when too high, sometimes when too low. For that reason some hydrometer standard, some saccharimeter merit-system, or some quality and quantity scale would be delightfully appreciated. Meanwhile, the eight requirements for "good-enough" with their upward comparisons and their downward gradations seem to leave enough to teachers' judgments to keep the grading elastic. They define merit sufficiently to guide the teacher who fears that a pupil's grades will be too low or too high in comparison with what they were last time. These requirements, or any points adopted and fearlessly revised as deemed necessary, will give uniformity if every teacher is given the same merit-standard as a guide. The teachers of our building have had the summary constantly before them and pupils have had frequent access to the printed standard. The ordinary guessing grade is in some cases as good as any, but when both teachers and pupils have had in their hands the same points upon which this guessing grade is founded, the results have approved the grading standard.

# THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN THE UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL

HOWARD C. HILL
University High School, University of Chicago

During the past year the following courses in the social sciences have been given in the University High School: (1) Community Life—a course in social-science English for Freshmen; (2) Survey of Civilization—for Sophomores; (3) Modern History—for Juniors and Seniors; (4) Business and Society—a course in elementary economics for Juniors and Seniors; (5) Ancient History—a course given primarily for Juniors and Seniors who plan to enter eastern colleges.

By co-operation with the English Department two groups of Freshmen this past year took a semester course in Community Life. Under this arrangement reading and composition projects as well as classroom instruction were under the guidance of the social-science teacher. The formal expressional side of the work, both oral and written, received especial emphasis; the number of such exercises was subject to the wishes of the English Department, members of which frequently inspected the work. The entire plan was carried out with frequent consultation and the heartiest co-operation between the two departments.

The school requires one year's work in the social sciences for graduation, not including the course in Community Life taken by Freshmen. There are no prerequisites for any of the courses, but since the work of each year is based on that of the preceding year, pupils are encouraged, if their plans for college permit, to take the entire four units. As a result, the number of pupils taking social-science courses during 1918–19 and 1919–20 has shown a marked increase over pre-

vious years. All classes meet five times a week; recitation periods are fifty minutes in length.

### COMMUNITY LIFE

This course is a study of community life and activities. The principle on which it is based is the conception that man is above everything else a social being. All his life he dwells, works, and plays with other men who are associated with him for reasons much like his own in various kinds of groups. In short, human life is group life. Man enters the world as a member of a family group; as a child, he receives certain education in a school group; for religious solace and inspiration, he usually depends on the church group; in daily occupation, he is a member of industrial groups; to secure safety and certain services, he joins with others in different political groups. His dependence on others and the dependence of others on him, arising from these group relations, are the most fundamental and important facts in human life.

Accordingly, the course is organized as a study of the chief group relations of an ordinary person, the various groups being taken up in the order in which a person usually becomes a member of them. After an introductory survey of the relations of the individual to the community, a study is made of the family, the school, the church, the community and its problems, the working group or industry, and the political group or government. Oral and written compositions are based on material suggested by these topics. Chief emphasis is placed on functions rather than framework. The genetic arrangement, or organization, of topics gives a unity to the work difficult to secure in any other way.

The word "community" in this course is not interpreted in the narrow sense of a particular locality, but is considered in its broader and truer aspects as including all people who have common interests and are mutually dependent, no matter

where they live. Topics are taken up first as they concern our own city and then are traced in wider and wider circles until their relation to the state, the nation, and even the world is shown. Or to change the figure, the treatment is sectoral rather than segmental, the center in the case being our own city, the outer circumference being the world. The following brief outline represents a year's work; during 1918–19 it served, with modifications, as the framework for a semester course.

GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF COURSE IN COMMUNITY LIFE

| TOPICS | PERCENTAGE OF TIME |
|---|---|
| I. Myself and Others: an Introductory Survey | 5 |
| 1. How I depend on others | |
| 2. How others depend on me | |
| 3. What community life means | |
| 4. My rights and my duties | |
| II. The Family | 5 |
| 1. What the family is for | |
| 2. What children contribute to the family | |
| 3. The ideal home | |
| 4. Influence of homelife on famous personages | |
| 5. Dangers to the modern family | |
| III. The School | 7 |
| 1. What education is | |
| 2. What the school is for | |
| 3. How the school carries out its aims | |
| 4. Our school—its work and activities | |
| 5. Relation of the school to the government | |
| 6. My rights and duties in the school | |
| IV. The Church | 3 |
| 1. Why churches exist | |
| 2. Different kinds of churches | |
| 3. What the church does | |
| V. The Community | 8 |
| 1. Primitive communities and customs | |
| 2. Geography and history of my own local community | |
| VI. Community Problems | 34 |
| 1. The immigrant | |

2. Housing
3. Health
4. Recreation
5. Protection
6. Communication and transportation
7. The unfortunates
8. Civic beauty

VII. Industry.....20
1. Why everyone should work: consumption and its problems
2. The kinds of work men do: production and its problems
3. Why and how men exchange the products of their labor: exchange and its problems
4. How modern methods of making goods raise the question of their ownership: the problem of capital and labor
5. What my work shall be

VIII. Government and Politics.....18
1. Local government: framework, support, relation to the state
2. State government: framework, relation to the national government and the people
3. National government: framework, support, relation to the people
4. Political parties and political issues
5. Present-day political problems

A large amount of purposeful reading is done by pupils who take the course. This reading is guided and centralized by focusing it upon the topics in the outline. A textbook in preparation by the instructor serves as a unifying core for the reading and the class discussions. Collateral reading falls into three general divisions: first, material which requires study, such as Judd and Marshall's *Community Leaflets*, Tufts's *Real Business of Living*, or Du Puy's *Uncle Sam's Modern Miracles;* second, interesting biographical and historical works, such as Jacob Riis's *Making of an American*, Helen Keller's *Story of My Life*, Booker T. Washington's *Up from Slavery*, or Rose Cohen's *Out of the Shadow;* third, imaginative literature, such

as Whitter's *Snowbound*, Burns's *Cotter's Saturday Night*, Stevenson's *Kidnapped*, Kelly's *Little Citizens*. At least two-thirds of the reading of the pupils is from the last two categories. The thirty-nine pupils who took the course last year read during the seventeen weeks of the semester from 1,161 pages (the lowest) to 5,139 pages (the highest). The average number of pages read per pupil was 2,333.8. These pupils, it should be added, were rapid readers and in ability represented roughly the upper third of the freshman class.

### SURVEY OF CIVILIZATION

In the first year's work in social science just described, attention is given throughout to present-day community life. A considerable amount of historical material is read and discussed, but always for the purpose of illuminating the particular topic under discussion. During the second year's work, especially in the earlier stages, chief stress is placed on the community relations of former times—social, industrial, and political. Constant comparisons are made with the topics treated the first year, and, as a result, both are made more intelligible.

After a brief review of primitive life, a cross-sectional study is made of the civilization of oriental countries, Egypt serving as a type. This is followed by a study of the life and civilization of Greece about the time of Pericles; Rome in the days of Augustus; Europe during the middle ages and the Renaissance; the American colonies on the eve of the Revolution; and the Age of Despotism and Revolution.

To each of these cross-sectional studies sufficient time is given to present a clear, definite picture of the civilization discussed. For example, a month is devoted to Greek life, three weeks to Roman life, four weeks to medieval life. Narrative history is relegated to the background, especially in the early part of the course. Only those movements vital in demonstrating the elements of continuity and evolution in history

are treated. The career of Alexander the Great, the conquests of Rome, the Crusades and the expansion of Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries are illustrations of such movements. In this way that which is most worth while for high-school pupils is selected rather than the multiplicity of names, dates, places, and events which are learned only to be forgotten and which too often have made the study of history dry, formal, and of slight value.

A brief outline of the course as modified in the light of the experience of the past year is given below.[1]

GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF SURVEY OF CIVILIZATION

| GENERAL DIVISIONS | PERCENTAGE OF TIME |
|---|---|
| I. Primitive Life and Oriental Culture | 7 |
| 1. Oriental lands and peoples | |
| 2. Egyptian civilization: farming, river trade, markets, shops, religion, writing, and records | |
| II. Greek Life and Civilization | 18 |
| 1. The early Greeks and the city state: Sparta—an agricultural, military, aristocratic state; Athens—an industrial, commercial, democratic state; colonial expansion | |
| 2. Conflict between East and West: Marathon, Salamis | |
| 3. Athenian life in the time of Pericles: commerce; arts and crafts; the agora and social life; the assembly and political life; the gymnasia and schooling; the theatre and play-going | |
| 4. The West against the East: decline of Athens, rise of Macedon; Alexander and the Greeks; Alexander's conquests; the spread of Greek culture | |
| III. Roman Life and Civilization | 18 |
| 1. Rome the conqueror: early Rome; expansion in Italy; the duel with Carthage; conquests in the East | |
| 2. The Roman Revolution: the reformers; rivalry of Pompey and Caesar; Caesar and the Senate; Caesar's reforms | |

[1] This outline is a condensation of a much more elaborate one furnished the writer by Mr. Arthur F. Barnard who taught this course during the past year.

3. Imperial Rome: government; law; architecture; literature; travel; communication; industry; commerce; social conditions
4. Decline of Rome: internal weaknesses; influence of Christianity; the barbarian invasions

IV. Medieval Life and Civilization.....15
1. Medieval institutions: feudalism; the manor; the medieval church and monasticism
2. The Crusades: the Byzantine empire and its civilization; the Mohammedans and the Saracenic civilization; causes for the crusades; the first and third crusades; results
3. Medieval commerce, industry, and culture: rise of the towns, industries, and crafts; commerce and exchange; the gilds; fairs and markets; universities; architecture; literature

V. The Renaissance and the Reformation.....12
1. Revival of learning: the Italian cities; humanism; literature; art; science
2. Discovery and exploration: commerce and trade-routes; the Portuguese and the East Indies; the Spanish and the West Indies; French and English explorers
3. The Reformation: Luther; protestantism; the counter-reformation; the Puritans in England; the migration to America

VI. Life in the American Colonies about 1760.....10
1. Growth of the American colonies: intercolonial wars and the victory of England; industry; commerce; religion; social classes; customs; manners; ideals; government

VII. The Age of Despotism and Revolution.....20
1. The old regime in Europe: social organization; religious abuses; divine right; Louis XIV of France; Frederick the Great of Prussia; George III of England
2. The American Revolution: commercial restrictions and taxation abuses; the war for independence;

establishment of the government of the United States

3. The French Revolution: the philosophers and scientists; influence of the American Revolution; the Estates General and the coming of the deluge; revolutionary reforms; Napoleon; Louisiana; commercial warfare; War of 1812; Congress of Vienna

In taking up the civilization of these various periods extensive use is made of such works as Davis' *Day in Old Athens*, Tucker's *Life in the Roman World*, Tappan's *When Knights Were Bold*, Earle's *Life in Colonial Days*.

In treating the narrative side of the course events are, so far as possible, grouped around famous personages. For this purpose, use is made of Plutarch's *Lives*, Webster's *Readings in Medieval and Modern History*, and similar works. Owing to their higher intrinsic value and their greater importance as a foundation for the succeeding course, narrative elements are given increased attention during the latter part of the year.

A difficulty in handling both this and the following course is the inadequacy of available texts. But by the use of Webster's *Early European History* combined with extensive library readings this proved no insurmountable barrier.

### MODERN HISTORY

The course for the third year as given during 1918–19 was a combination of American and European history from about 1763 to 1919. In contrast to the work of the previous year emphasis was placed on the narrative side of history, events in America receiving major treatment. The economic, social, and political movements which determined to a large degree present-day conditions and problems were given chief attention. Such topics, therefore, as the Industrial Revolution, the westward movement, the progress of democracy, humanitarian reforms, the development of transportation, the labor movement, the growth of nationality, the expansion of Europe,

the rise of socialism, and the causes of the World War were emphasized. The following is a brief outline of the course.[1]

GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF MODERN HISTORY, 1763–1919

GENERAL DIVISIONS — PERCENTAGE OF TIME

I. Political, Social, and Industrial Revolution, 1763–1815..27
   1. America and Europe about 1763: social, industrial, and political conditions
   2. The American Revolution and the establishment of the federal government, 1763–93: causes of the Revolution—geographic, economic, political; the Revolutionary War—the French Alliance; political uncertainty and transition; adoption of the Constitution; testing the new government—finance, domestic insurrection, party strife, foreign affairs
   3. The French Revolution, 1789–1815: causes—the abuses, the philosophers, the American Revolution; the Estates General and the Rights of Man; France against Europe; the XYZ affair; rise of Napoleon; Jeffersonianism and Louisiana; Continental Blockade, Orders in Council, Embargo; War of 1812; Congress of Vienna
   4. The Industrial Revolution, 1763–1815: the domestic system of industry; the great inventions; influence of the revolutionary wars; introduction in America; economic, social, educational, and political results

II. Reaction, Expansion, and Political Revolution, 1815–48..20
   1. Reaction versus liberalism: Metternich and the Holy Alliance; Monroe Doctrine; revolutions of 1830 and 1848; influence on emigration to America
   2. The westward movement and the development of transportation: westward migration from Europe and in America; improvements in transportation—steamboat, canal, pike, railroad; life in the West
   3. Democratic, industrial, and intellectual expansion: development of American democracy—influence of the frontier and early labor organizations; be-

[1] Dr. R. M. Tryon gave many helpful suggestions in the selection of names for the various divisions in this outline.

ginnings of English democracy—the Great Reform Bill; industrial, humanitarian, and intellectual progress; labor movement in England and America, English and American abolitionists, reforms in treatment of the unfortunates (insane, paupers, criminals, etc.), extension of educational opportunities; inventions—reaper, telegraph, sewing-machine, cook-stove, etc.

III. Nationality, Conflict, and Democracy, 1848–71.....18

1. The slavery struggle: chattel slavery and westward expansion in America; wage slavery and capitalistic development in industrial countries—rise of socialism and anarchism
2. Triumphs in nationality: American Civil War; unification of Italy; welding of Germany
3. Development of political and intellectual democracy in England: Chartist movement; influence of American Civil War; Reform Act of 1867; Gladstone's political, educational, and social reforms; scientific discoveries (Agassiz, Darwin, Pasteur, etc.)

IV. Reconstruction, Consolidation, and World Rivalries, 1871–1919.....35

1. Reconstruction and consolidation: political—reconstructing the South and consolidating the American government, building the Third French Republic, consolidating the German Empire; economic—consolidation of capital and labor; industrial warfare; reform of currency and tariff; educational, humanitarian, religious, and scientific progress
2. Territorial and economic expansion of the Great Powers: Great Britain; France; United States; Russia; Japan; Germany
3. International rivalries and the World War: commercial and territorial rivalries; Triple Alliance versus Triple Entente; World War; the United States and the War; the peace settlement
4. Problems of World Reconstruction: economic, industrial, social, and political

The unique feature of this course is its combination of modern American and European history. In 1916 the Committee on Social Studies of the National Education Association recommended such a combination down to about 1700. We have merely carried their idea to its logical outcome.

There are three important advantages in such a method: (1) By combination, time is saved through avoiding the repetition of topics like the Monroe Doctrine, the World War, and many others which need to be discussed in both American and European history courses when these subjects are taught separately. (2) There are many pupils in high school who have but one year of history. In the University High School, for example, 80 per cent of the pupils take but one history course proper. This is supplemented by the large number who take Community Life and Modern Problems. In the Chicago high schools 97 per cent of the pupils at present take no modern European history. Combination makes it possible for this large number of pupils to secure in a single year a fair understanding of the recent history of both America and Europe, a result which cannot be obtained where the two are separated unless perchance the method of giving a semester course in each be adopted. (3) Combination in a single course gives a truer view of the development of the civilization of our own day than is possible where modern American and European history are presented apart as in the traditional courses. Such topics as the Industrial Revolution, financial panics, currency, imperialism, and commerce can be understood clearly only when viewed in their international aspects. Even such an event as the American Civil War gains new significance when studied side by side with the unification of Germany and Italy.

Every generation, in short, must rewrite its history. Though the facts in the past do not change, their value for the present does. The decade prior to the War for Independence was rightly interested in the details of the struggles of liberty-

loving Englishmen against tyrannical Stuart kings; many an argument upholding the justice of the American cause had its origin in that seventeenth-century philosophy which maintained the inherent right of subjects to overthrow despotic rulers. Likewise, the generation which lived preceding the Civil War was intensely interested in the history of negro slavery and in all that related to states-rights and national-rights, for these matters were the vital questions of that day. And so it is in our own time. The World War has brought us new needs and new problems and those phases of the past which throw light on these perplexing and difficult questions are the most valuable for our times. These problems are world-wide and they can best be understood when seen from a world viewpoint.

The truth is that the nations of the earth, including the United States, do not, and have not, lived in separate, water-tight compartments. Our civilization is of European origin, our people of European stock, millions of them of European birth, our problems at times of the very web of European life. With our entrance into the World War our isolation vanished, if indeed it ever existed. The forces which have moved the world the past century and longer—democracy, nationality, science, economics—have not been confined by state lines, but have exerted their power everywhere. By combining modern American and European history this unity in human life becomes evident and the tendency towards provincial thinking, all too characteristic of the American people, can to some extent be remedied. In this way combination will enable history to better serve present human needs.

Texts used during the course were Fite's *History of the United States* and Hazen's *Modern European History*. Extensive use of collateral reading was, of course, necessary. As a result of the experience of this year the date separating the second-year course in Survey of Civilization from the third-year Modern History course will be changed from 1763 to 1815.

In this way a full year will be available for the complicated story of the last century and a better distribution of time will thereby be provided.

### BUSINESS AND SOCIETY

By way of introduction into this course, a study was made of human wants and their satisfaction, and a general survey was taken of economic organization using for illustration a simple community in which various methods of social control are tried—communism, socialism, private ownership and representative government, and the like.

A careful study of the medieval economic system was then made; this was followed by a discussion of the agricultural and industrial changes which came to a climax in the Industrial Revolution. The next large division of the course consisted of a description of modern economic organization, its materials and tasks. Emphasis was placed on specialization, concentration, capital, and so on, as methods of modern production. Problems of apportionment, and risks and losses of natural and human resources were also dealt with from the standpoint of the social institutions which are methods used to apportion resources or reduce risks. In the last part of the year's work chief attention was given to a study of the guidance and control of society. In this connection attention was directed to the evolution of custom, public opinion, and ethical standards. Especial emphasis was laid on our constitution and governmental agencies, their evolution and possible development. The outline of the course which follows was condensed from one furnished by Mr. L. S. Lyon who taught the subject the past year.

### GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF BUSINESS AND SOCIETY

| TOPICS | PERCENTAGE OF TIME |
|---|---|
| I. Introductory: human wants and their satisfaction; general survey of economic organization | 5 |

II. Medieval organization of agriculture, manufacture, and commerce ..... 7
III. The coming of modern business through changes in agriculture, commerce, and manufacturing ..... 7
IV. Specialized co-operative production: single business units; specialization of locality; specialization of business units ..... 13
V. Machine production: meaning; results; indirect costs; large-scale production; concentration of population .. 15
VI. Business organization and apportionment: individual enterprise; political agencies for control; banks; market news ..... 28
VII. Risks and wastes of capital; natural and human resources; remedies ..... 9
VIII. Guidance and control of social organization; custom; public opinion; ethical standards; government—its evolution and methods ..... 16

During 1919–20 this course in Business and Society will be replaced by one entitled Modern Problems. In this subject while economic factors will receive careful attention, social and political elements will also be emphasized. Among the topics studied will be such questions as transportation, finance, labor, immigration, socialism, tariff, taxation, crime, education, conservation, recreation, arbitration, large-scale production, liberty and law, and government. Each problem will be studied from the historical point of view in order to explain its development, its difficulties, and the chief proposals which have been suggested for its solution. There will of course be a constant effort to present these problems, not in fragments unrelated to one another, but as parts of one great whole, each having its own peculiar phases, but each affected by, and affecting, the others. By such a study it is hoped and believed that the chief social problems of the modern world will in some degree be appreciated and understood and that good citizenship—the goal of all true education—will thereby be promoted.

The chief aims in the teaching of the social sciences in the University High School, it may be said in conclusion, are: first, to explain present-day life and problems; secondly, to cultivate or promote a scientific attitude towards human affairs; thirdly, to create or stimulate a vital interest in history and related subjects. In order to accomplish the first aim a constant effort has been made to select material which will best explain present-day life and problems and to arrange and present it so as to show its relation clearly to the modern world. To promote a scientific attitude towards human affairs—the second important aim in the course—human life is presented genetically, the necessity of a solid basis of facts for all sound judgment is emphasized, and an attempt is made to have pupils study both sides of a question with impartiality and tolerance and with a readiness to alter opinions whenever new evidence justifies such alteration. To create a liking for the social sciences—our third aim—we have tried to use reading matter and teaching methods likely to arouse an abiding interest in the subject.[1] Although much of the available material is ill-adapted to high-school boys and girls, there is a sufficient amount to make possible a fair accomplishment of this aim.

A course organized and presented so as to aid in the understanding of the present, in the creation of a scientific attitude towards social problems, and in the formation of a lasting interest in the subject, has, we think, distinct social value. It would be presumptuous to claim that the foregoing course has fulfilled these aims, but they have at least served as the constant guides in its organization and presentation.

[1] For a discussion of these aims see my forthcoming article, "History for History's Sake," in *The Historical Outlook*.

# PROVISION FOR ACCELERANT AND RETARDED CHILDREN IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

FRANK P. WHITNEY
Collinwood Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio

It appears that the advantages of grouping children according to ability for purposes of instruction decidedly outweigh any disadvantages inherent in the scheme. For the purpose of this discussion I assume that all are agreed on this general proposition. Possibly any lingering suspicion on this score might be removed by substituting the expression "mental differences" for "ability." Grouping children according to their differences for purposes of instruction is but another way of saying that we must have some sort of grading in our schools in order to get anywhere. These differences may be differences of age, of sex, of purpose or choice, of mental ability, as well as differences in the stage of advancement in proficiency of some kind. The whole scheme of grading pupils in school is based upon the assumption that it is possible to determine their relative or absolute capacity or ability or aptitude for carrying on certain lines of work. I am therefore assuming at the outset that it is desirable to grade children according to ability. The question is not *whether* but *how* it should be done.

The introduction of the junior high school into the educational system has created a unique opportunity. It has brought together large numbers of children in the seventh and eighth school years who, for the most part, are taking common subjects in which the standards of accomplishment are still somewhat elastic. We are therefore presented with the opportunity, not only of grouping children according to ability, but also of setting varying standards of accomplish-

ment for the different groups. To my mind this situation requires us to readjust our traditional views as well as our school organization in somewhat radical ways.

Preliminary to suggesting one or two of the definite readjustments which seem to be needed, I may state two presuppositions in mind in attacking this problem:

1. The course of study should be exactly suited to the ability or capacity of the pupils. I mean here by the course of study not merely the printed course, or that outlined by supervisors and superintendent, but the one actually administered and taught. It is, of course, the theory that all courses of study are fitted to the pupils. It is not the practice actually to fit them to the pupils. The facts as to retardation conclusively prove this statement. Again, by ability or capacity I mean, not a theoretical ability or capacity that someone may assume that children ought to have, but the ability or capacity that actually gets on the job and performs. This interpretation, for example, takes into account in determining working ability the certain proportion of absence due to unavoidable causes such as illness. This, of course, cannot be done in any individual case, but it can be done with mathematical certainty for fairly large groups.

2. The ideal school for which courses of study, buildings, equipment, and teachers exist is, whatever else it may be, one where every pupil is busy, happy, interested, and successful. That school is failing of its purpose that allows any considerable proportion of its pupils to develop the habit of failure. Just to the extent to which a school or a teacher sets before pupils working ideals that are impossible of realization, just to that extent is such a school or teacher promoting disorder, unhappiness, discontent, and failure.

In a word, then, I am presupposing as a necessary condition to the success of this plan that teachers have sufficient freedom in giving assignments of work within the limits of the course

of study to permit children of any grade of ability to work happily and to achieve success.

The first readjustment I would propose would be such a change in method of promotion as would provide, not only for eliminating the slowest members of any group, but also for eliminating the most able members. Our common practice tends to keep the actual requirements of the course of study far in advance of the average ability of any particular group or class. It must be made as easy for children of marked ability to get ahead of their group as for children of low ability to get behind. In general, for every grade indicating marked deficiency given in any subject or course there must be a grade indicating marked proficiency. If the first grade means dropping into a slower section or even into a lower class, the second grade must mean going ahead into a more rapid section or into a higher class. This scheme provides an automatic check on the natural and inevitable tendency to overload the course of study in the interest of the brighter pupils. And this check will operate, not at the sacrifice, but to the advantage of that interest which certainly is in every way just as precious as the interest of the dullards. For every retardation there will somewhere be a corresponding acceleration. We shall never eliminate failures or individual retardation, but the retardation of large groups must be eliminated if we are to keep our schools true to the ideal of democracy—equal opportunity for all. The only natural, practicable, and certain means of preventing general retardation lies in providing some such automatic plan whereby acceleration is provided just to the extent to which retardation occurs.

The second readjustment has already been tacitly assumed. It involves our traditional point of view as to what a grade or mark in school signifies. If we have organized our school into classes on a general basis of advancement in proficiency, and each class into groups on a general basis of ability to do

the general work assigned to that class, we are then confronted with the problem of adjusting the demands of the course of study upon each of these groups so that each group somewhere within the maximum and minimum assignments may work happily, interestedly, and successfully. That is to say that each teacher upon whom primarily the problem falls must so vary the assignments of work for these various groups that it becomes genuinely possible for one group, even the poorest, to work as happily and as successfully as any other, even the best group.

Now it is obviously idle for us to talk about these poorest pupils being as successful as the best if we are to measure their success by the same standard. If we are actually to promote any such feeling of success as we desire, we must discard all thought of uniform standards of accomplishment. In other words the success of any group will be measured, not by the accomplishment of another group or by some absolute standard, but by their own success in performing the work assigned. This means that an excellent grade in one group does not of necessity signify on any absolute standard what the same grade in any other group signifies. It may signify more or less. For a pupil to win such a grade in one group does not afford a guaranty that he could win that grade in some other group. But a high grade anywhere does signify that the work assigned for that group has been well done. To that extent, alone, does a uniform and invariable meaning attach to the marks.

To any of us long accustomed to regarding a mark as given for the purpose of fixing a pupil's relative position upon some so-called absolute scale, it comes somewhat as a shock to be told that marks are to be used in so relative and varying a fashion. It looks like scholastic chaos. In reality it is not such a revolution in fact as it may seem in theory. At a teachers' meeting in my building some time ago, I asked what

the grades on the report cards signified in the minds of the teachers. The teachers themselves gave not less than six clearly defined and distinctly different meanings which could be, and actually were, attached in their own minds to these marks which they had just given. They were:

1. Proficiency on assigned work as indicated by either oral or written response or by the product turned out.

2. Some one or more of a group of social virtues such as response, willingness, co-operation, teachableness.

3. Power or capacity to understand and carry on present tasks.

4. Relative standing on any one or more of these points as compared with pupils either of this or some other group.

5. Standing on some absolute scale.

6. Probable ability to go on with new work of similar nature.

I have no doubt that anyone who took the trouble to inquire would meet a similar response showing the wide divergence in the interpretation that attaches to any particular mark. Probably it is altogether desirable that grades should at one time or another in some proportion or other carry all these meanings and perhaps still others. However, I mention this only to show that asking teachers to be just as willing and glad to give high grades in the poorest sections as in the best, provided that pupils qualify for them on the basis chiefly of the first interpretation given above, is not in truth a scheme either desperate or radical.

Certainly it ought to be possible for every pupil to work to his maximum and to have that work counted as being in the truest and highest sense successful. Some experience with this plan convinces me that, when properly handled, there is not the slightest danger that pupils will undervalue the privilege of working with a more able or rapid group, or that they will fail to distinguish between a high grade won in the poorest

section and a high grade won in the best section. If at any time it appears to be necessary, the mark can carry with it on the permanent record for identification purposes a subnumeral to indicate in what section it was earned. So far we have found that neither necessary nor desirable.

While this method of marking pupils may not be essential to a plan for providing rapid promotion for accelerants, it has proved in three years of practice to be of very great value in adjusting the course of study to the needs and capacities of the pupils, which is primarily exactly what grouping children according to ability is designed to secure. The whole scheme is based upon the frankest possible recognition of the differences in children in sum total as well as in type of ability, and at the same time upon the right of every child to have a real chance at success.

It is not a scheme to bamboozle children or to delight their parents. It does not tend toward the elimination but rather toward the development of distinctions. It is not the aim to deceive children or parents by a progress that is apparent rather than real. There is not the slightest pretense that those who have finished a certain grade have had an equivalent training or that their accomplishments are equal. Under this plan everyone has a chance at real progress. But because some children cannot maintain a rate of progress equal to that of certain others they are not therefore denied the satisfaction of making a little real progress of their own and of being worthily recognized for it. To the criticism which this scheme sometimes evokes concerning our accommodating complaisance in accepting and rewarding poor work, we can only reply that we are not interested in "maintaining our standards" if by that is meant "fitting the children to an inflexible course of study."

In Collinwood Junior High School we group the incoming seventh B class by districts until we are sufficiently acquainted

with them and they with us to make a regrouping on the ability basis practicable and, from our point of view, desirable. We have tried grouping them according to the scholarship estimates submitted by their sixth-grade teachers, but on the whole we prefer our present plan. Simply keeping these children with former acquaintances and friends provides an easier introduction to the diversified program of the junior high school.

In the ninth grade there is a required differentiation in courses depending upon the type of senior high school selected—academic, technical, or commercial. In a general way this follows the differentiation already begun in the seventh A class. So far, however, we have not had a sufficient number of pupils in the ninth grade to make a further grouping on the ability basis practicable in each ninth-grade section. For this reason, many pupils have not profited in respect to saving time and getting ahead to the extent that theoretically should have been possible.

Of the six grades or classes, this leaves three, seventh A, eighth B, and eighth A, in which we have had a fair chance at trying out the plan. In these classes the sections are made up according to ability. At the close of each term a committee of teachers sits in conference for some hours over the regrouping of each class basing their judgment upon the marks assigned in the five main subjects. As everyone knows, the ability of any particular child is likely to run rather evenly throughout the traditional school subjects. A study of the variations as manifested by the marks, whether such variations represent eccentricities of the pupil or of the teacher, or whether they indicate genuine differences, is a most wholesome exercise which the principal would be unreasonably selfish in monopolizing. Where a mark indicates considerable variation, effort is made to place a child in an appropriate section in that subject.

Having secured in this way fairly homogeneous groups, it becomes necessary to fit the assignments of work to the various groups. Inasmuch as the course of study in Cleveland is designed to guide and direct rather than to prescribe, it is possible within the limits of the course to do this successfully. The slowest group will be assigned the minimum amount, and the type as well as the material of instruction will be varied according to the needs of the particular section. By varying the breadth and depth or intensity of the work rather than its extent, the theory that all sections of a class come out together at the end of a term, although some have done much more work than others, is found to work fairly well. This scheme permits of a regrouping at the end of a term and of frequent and easy transfers from one section to another within the term.

As a test of the success with which the grouping has been done, as well as of the skill which teachers show in assigning work suited to their sections, frequent studies are made of the distribution of grades. Marks are given every four weeks in large part to facilitate the adjustment of pupils to their work and of the work to the pupils. The D mark, in this city the deficient or failing grade, is always understood to mean need of prompt readjustment of some kind. Two successive Ds demand immediate attention. This may consist of special help of some kind or of transfer to another section, slower as a rule, or even in some cases to a lower class in that subject.

For every D, the lowest grade given, there must be an E, the highest grade, to balance it. There will be exceptions, of course, in many small groups where the normal curve of distribution does not obtain. But in general it must be true of a group that as many get ahead as fall behind. Otherwise the course of study obviously is making an excessive demand and must at once be modified. The presence of too many Ds, in other words, may mean readjustment of the assignment or of the teacher as well as of the pupil.

Those who receive Es are candidates for acceleration just as those who receive Ds are candidates for retardation. It is usually found desirable in putting on children to arrange their programs so that for a time they may take the work of an advanced section or class in addition to that of the one they are in. This has the obvious advantage of giving them a try-out in the higher grade of work without making it in the least embarrassing for them in case they give it up.

The greatest difficulty, of course, in working any plan, which, even in the slightest degree may be touched with novelty, lies in securing the willing and intelligent co-operation of the teachers, most of whom are either drawn from the traditional type of elementary school or are recently from college with the impress of high-school and college teaching methods fresh upon them. In both cases it is a part of their creed that thoroughness demands eliminations. They feel that they must testify to their high standards by giving low marks. The following is a typical distribution of marks made by such a teacher teaching for the first time in the junior high school. They are the grades given on one occasion to five sections of a class in seventh grade arithmetic. The five marks given are arranged in order beginning with the lowest as follows: 14 Ds, 93 Ps, 57 Fs, 26 Gs, and 5 Es. This happened to be a fairly good class, probably above the average. It did not occur to this teacher until her attention was called to it, that if she was unable to give, on the average, more than one top grade to each of these five sections in arithmetic something might be radically wrong with her assignments.

A comparison of the distribution of top and bottom marks in the leading academic subjects at two periods, one before and one after some attention and study had been given to this matter, is interesting and suggestive. The marks used for this purpose were those given at corresponding periods in successive terms.

| Subject | First Period | | Second Period | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Ds | Es | Ds | Es |
| Mathematics | 126 | 6 | 88 | 89 |
| English | 69 | 2 | 27 | 36 |
| History | 38 | 3 | 18 | 24 |
| Science | 58 | 23 | 26 | 36 |
| Totals | 291 | 34 | 159 | 185 |

The total number of marks given in mathematics and English in the first period was about 800 and in the second period about 900, in history and science, somewhat less.

The first distribution is characteristic of a traditional type of school where the assignments are really made for the brightest pupils and a constant process of elimination is going on at the lower end, thus insuring cumulative retardation. The second distribution does not of necessity indicate that more or better school work was being done although we hope that may have been the case. It does indicate that a more wholesome relation exists between the assignments and the normal ability of the children. It also affords the school principal an opportunity to begin a process of elimination at the upper end which may balance the elimination at the lower end, and thus, in time, effectually check the general tendency toward retardation in the entire group.

In grouping children of junior high-school age according to ability as indicated by the proficiency marks, nothing could be farther from our thought than to imply at any time that there is anything necessarily permanent in this classification. Everyone is aware that from one term to another children of this age may show the most astonishing variations in ability as evidenced by application and industry and general success in school. The plan has this merit at least that it provides for such variations. Under its operation a sudden access of interest and enthusiasm on the part of any child may speedily result in suitable recognition and promotion.

The extreme flexibility of the scheme, of course, makes certain difficulties, or, I should prefer to say, inconveniences. It not only provides for, but makes inevitable, a continual changing of individual programs. There is never a time when everything is settled. As a class progresses through the school the proportion of irregular programs constantly increases, and program-making becomes correspondingly difficult. The plan requires for its successful operation more sections than sometimes we have had. Each term a large proportion of the teaching staff is new and must be led as tactfully as possible in many cases to discard theories of the grading and promotion of pupils which, having long been cherished, are doubly dear. However, these are all difficulties or inconveniences to be met with in any type of organization adapted to junior high-school needs. The real inconvenience lies in not having the children all made after the same pattern.

# Educational News and Editorial Comment

## CREDIT FOR QUALITY

From time to time the *School Review* has published discussions of administrative systems which aim to recognize quality of work and to give more substantial returns to students who make high grades.

The following is a statement issued by the high school of Marcus, Iowa:

A semester grade of 75 per cent in any subject gives the pupil 1 credit.

A semester grade of 85 per cent in any subject gives the pupil 1 1/8 credits.

A semester grade of 95 per cent in any subject gives the pupil 1 1/4 credits.

---

The *School Review* is published monthly from September to June by the University of Chicago. It is edited and managed by the Department of Education as one of a series of educational publications. The series, including also the *Elementary School Journal* and the *Supplementary Educational Monographs*, is under a joint editorial committee and covers the entire field of educational interests.

A semester grade of 65 per cent in any subject gives the pupil 1/2 credit.

These credits and fractional credits all count in summing up the 32 credits required for graduation.

If a pupil desires he may graduate with more than thirty-two credits. In his diploma there will then be made mention of this fact in a statement showing the number of credits he has received in excess of the 32 required.

Work of great thoroughness and regularity such as would be considered excellent or superior deserves a 95 per cent rating. This should be such work as bright industrious pupils *are able* to do.

Strong, thorough, regular work which can almost be called excellent deserves a rating of 85 per cent.

Good work having some lack of exactness or regularity but showing a good understanding of the subject deserves a rating of 75 per cent.

Work which could not be called good but which is done with sufficient interest and regularity to be of real value to the pupil deserves a rating of 65 per cent.

Work done at a lower standard than 65 per cent is considered of no real value to the pupil and receives no credit.

Work worthy of credit is given one of the four marks: 65 per cent, 75 per cent, 85 per cent, or 95 per cent. These marks are used with their ordinary values. No intervening grades are used except in final averages.

This credit system recognizes the educative value of thorough work and places a premium upon it. It permits pupils to complete the high-school course in a length of time greater or less than the standard four years.

The superintendent of schools, E. T. Sheppard, writes:

We have entered upon the third year in the use of this system. The practical results and the general satisfaction are beyond our expectation. This is naturally the case when we do a sensible thing in a business-like way. I believe that the fractions of excess credit granted for the higher grade of work are not too great as we have it in our system. In fact, the increased value that comes to the pupil as a result of increased thoroughness, I believe, is far greater than these fractions represent.

There are, of course, grave problems arising in the administration of this kind of a system. The marks of teachers in different departments must be standardized so that excess credits will be equitably distributed. The amount of work required in courses must be equated so that excess credits and penalties will be alike in all parts of the elective system.

Penalty grades must be in proper proportions to excess grades, otherwise the curve of marks will be skewed in an unfair way. In short, the credit-for-quality plan, if administered in what is described in the above quotation as a business-like way, can be made to stimulate the thinking of the whole school about the content and administration of the entire curriculum.

### NEW YORK CITY SCHOOL FINANCES

The school situation in New York City continues to present a spectacle of inadequate financial support and political maneuvering for control of such funds as are at hand. The Public Education Association of that city has issued several bulletins dealing with the financial problems that now confront the city system. The following statement from one of the bulletins summarizes one aspect of the present situation:

> Why is it next to impossible for interested citizens and tax payers to get access to the details of the $87,000,000 school budget this year?
>
> Heretofore, copies of the tentative budget in extended detail have been printed in pamphlet form and released to the public during the *early part of September*, and everyone who cared to has had ample time to study the items in advance of the public hearings before the Board of Estimate and Apportionment in October.
>
> It is now almost October, and the only way interested citizens can get at the facts behind the more or less startling and confusing totals that have been published in the daily press is to pore over the rare copy of an unwieldy mass of blurred manuscript at the office of the Board of Education.
>
> Such inaccessibility to the facts is bound to cause unfortunate doubts in the public mind regarding the character of the budget, particularly when it has been preceded by such other disquieting factors as the final cutting of the budget by the Board of Education behind closed doors, the general realization of the fact that the budget does not appear nearly as generous upon study as a first glance at the total would lead one to believe, and the disillusionment of the public regarding the Mayor's contention that he has provided some $10,000,000 for new school buildings during the past year, when, as a matter of fact, he has not provided a red cent, as that sum was but a part of the balance for that purpose that existed at the close of the Mitchel administration.

Nothing will clear away such doubts and win the united support of public-spirited citizens to the task of securing adequate school funds more than the freest opportunity to obtain full enlightenment regarding the facts.

The public is jealous of its rights in this matter and any abridgment of them is likely to result disastrously.

Several pages following this are devoted to statements of indefensible reductions that will have to be made in school work. For example, school gardening will have to be given up, and the Americanization program for the city will have to be very much reduced.

The association then presents two resolutions which it has attempted to have acted upon by all of the leading organizations in New York City. These resolutions are as follows:

1. In view of the fact that the budget estimate this year is some $44,000,000 greater than the $43,000,000 guaranteed to the schools under the 4.9 mills provision of the law, the representatives of the organization present are requested to secure the action of their several organizations upon the following general principle: That in passing upon the final appropriation for the schools the jurisdiction of funds for all educational purposes be retained by the school authorities with whom the responsibility is legally placed for determining and carrying out educational policies.

2. In view of the fact that there is now pending before the State Department of Education an appeal from the City Superintendent asking for a judicial interpretation of certain sections of the by-laws of the Board of Education, which, it is claimed, divide administrative responsibility for purely educational matters between the City Superintendent and the Board of Education, the representatives of the organizations present are requested to secure the action of their several organizations upon the following general principle: That responsibility for the administration of all educational matters under the Board of Education be centered in one person—the duly appointed chief executive under the law, and expert administrator of the system, the City Superintendent—and that the Board of Education *as a body*, and not through any one of its individual members, determine the fundamental policies which shall guide and direct the Superintendent's action.

The theory which lies back of these resolutions is one which is undoubtedly open to debate, and it behooves school people

to make themselves acquainted very promptly with the fiscal problems that are involved in this debate. If school authorities are made independent in their control of school finances, there will have to be some device for co-ordinating the taxes levied for school purposes with those which are levied for other purposes. There must inevitably, then, be developed some form of political responsibility for school expenditures, and it is not easy to see how in a city like New York a board of education can assume this political responsibility without a much higher degree of general public education on matters of municipal finance than can be assumed at the present time. On the other hand, it is equally true, as pointed out by the Public Education Association, that the schools will suffer if there is not a closer relation between the authorities that distribute school funds and those which determine the amount available for school purposes.

There can be no doubt, as has been indicated in earlier comments in the *School Review*, that this problem of school finance is coming to be a more and more urgent problem and one on which school officers ought to become very much more intelligent than they are at the present time.

### SHORTAGE OF TEACHERS

In order to furnish the public reliable information with respect to teaching conditions throughout the country, a letter was sent out by the Field Secretary of the National Education Association to every county and district superintendent of schools in the United States, with return addressed postal cards inclosed upon which were printed ten questions. The information sought included the actual shortage of teachers at the opening of school in September, the number of teachers below standard who had been accepted in order to fill vacancies, the relation of salary increases to the increased

cost of living, whether or not the number of teachers under 21 years of age has increased, and whether or not promising young men and women are being attracted to teaching as in the past.

The total number of inquiries sent out was 3,465. At the time this article was prepared, September 22, replies had been received from 1,512 superintendents. These replies are signed by the respective superintendents making the reports and are from every state in the Union. Coming from such reliable sources, and from every part of the country, they undoubtedly represent conditions as they actually exist. It is impossible at this time to furnish a complete tabulation of the reports received, but the following important facts are of interest.

The 1,512 superintendents reporting represent 221,296 teaching positions, but none of the large cities are included. They report a total shortage of 12,934 teachers, and a total of 22,138 teachers below standard who have been accepted in order to fill vacancies.

These figures show the shortage of teachers to be 5.84 per cent of the teaching positions represented, and that the number of teachers below standard who have been admitted are almost exactly 10 per cent of the teaching positions. The Bureau of Education estimates that there are 650,000 teaching positions in the public schools of the United States. If these percentages hold good for the entire country, the total shortage of teachers in the United States must be about 38,000, and the number of teachers below standard approximately 65,000. In other words, more than 100,000 teaching positions in the United States are either without teachers, or else supplied with teachers who are admittedly unqualified to teach, measured by the standards of the respective localities in which the schools are situated.

One thousand four hundred and thirty superintendents report that teachers' salaries have not been increased in pro-

portion to the increased cost of living, and 1,267 report that they have found it necessary to lower the standard of qualifications in an effort to supply teachers.

One thousand and fifty-two report that the number of teachers below 21 years of age is increasing. Many report that their rural schools are being taught largely by young girls without professional training. One thousand three hundred and ninety-five declare that promising young men and women are not being attracted to teaching as in the past.

The reports show that conditions are most serious where salaries are lowest. In some states the shortage of teachers is more than 20 per cent. In those states where salaries have been increased most conditions are much more encouraging, the shortage in some cases being as low as 2 per cent.

A complete report on this investigation will be furnished later by the National Education Association.

### MERIT SYSTEMS AND SALARIES

From all parts of the country come encouraging reports of increases in the salaries of teachers. The National Education Association promises a bulletin, which may be issued before this note comes from the press, dealing with the various schedules that have been adopted in cities in all of the states. In the urgency of making these changes in salaries there has been a tendency in many quarters either to omit all consideration of merit requirements or to regard merit requirements as fully met in the original canvass of a teacher's credentials at the time that he or she was appointed. Where the effort has been made to introduce the principle that salary shall be in proportion to progressive study there has sometimes arisen opposition on the part of teachers, many of them favoring "flat" increases or increases based solely on years of experience.

It is frankly to be recognized that there are grave difficulties in the way of working out merit systems of grading teachers

and adjusting salaries. On the other hand, there is no more urgent problem before administrators today than that of guaranteeing a higher type of public service to communities which are giving increased financial support to schools.

The following report of one method of adjusting a variety of conflicting considerations may serve to make the discussion concrete and may also stimulate other systems to report merit systems recently adopted.

The city of Omaha has recently put into effect new regulations concerning the salary schedule and professional advancement of the entire corps of teachers. For the high-school department, teachers of academic subjects must be graduates of four-year college courses, and must have two years of successful teaching experience. The minimum salary is $1,100, increasing $100 a year to a maximum of $1,700 with provision of additional $100 super-maximum salary for certain professional credits described below. A sensible limit of five classes per day has been established. Heads of departments, their teaching limited to four classes per day, are entitled to additional salary from $100 to $300 depending upon the number of classes they supervise.

Promotional credits attained by approved college or university work are the basis for what is known as "bonus" and as "super-maximum salary." A bonus of $50 is granted for one year only to any teacher who presents five credits earned after June 1, 1919. The super-maximum salary is granted to "teachers, assistant supervisors, or supervisors who have served at least one year at the regular maximum salary": $100 for six credits from an accredited school; a second increase of $100 for a total of 12 credits; and a third and final increase of $100 for 18 credits; advances in salary in no case to exceed $100 a year. No credits for which a bonus has been granted are accepted for the super-maximum salary. At least one-third of the work presented by each group of six credits must be in edu-

cation and the remainder in subjects closely allied to the professional duties in Omaha public schools.

In estimating university credits a five-hour course for one semester yields five credits, a one-hour course for one summer session of six weeks yields one and two-thirds credits, enabling any teacher to secure the $50 bonus for six weeks summer term. Eighteen credits earned at an approved university during a leave of absence are rewarded by the three annual increases of $100 each.

### THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON MATHEMATICAL REQUIREMENTS

The National Committee on Mathematical Requirements was organized in the late summer of 1916 for the purpose of giving national expression to the movement for reform in the teaching of mathematics which had gained considerable headway in various parts of the country.

The membership of the committee at present is as follows:

Representing the colleges:

A. R. Crathorne, University of Illinois.
C. N. Moore, University of Cincinnati.
E. H. Moore, University of Chicago.
D. E. Smith, Columbia University.
H. W. Tyler, Massachusetts Institute of Technology.
J. W. Young, Dartmouth College, *Chairman.*

Representing the secondary schools:

Vevia Blair, Horace Mann School, New York. Representing the Association of Teachers of Mathematics in the Middle States and Maryland.
W. F. Downey, English High School, Boston. Representing the Association of Teachers of Mathematics in New England.
J. A. Foberg, Crane Technical High School, Chicago, *Vice Chairman.* Representing the Central Association of Science and Mathematics Teachers.
A. C. Olney, Commissioner of Secondary Education, Sacramento, California.
Raleigh Schorling, The Lincoln School, New York.
P. H. Underwood, Ball High School, Galveston, Texas.
Eula Weeks, Cleveland High School, St. Louis, Missouri.

Last May, the committee was fortunate in securing an appropriation of $16,000 from the General Education Board, which has made it possible greatly to extend its work. This work is being planned on a large scale for the purpose of organizing a nation-wide discussion of the problems of reorganizing the courses in mathematics in secondary schools and colleges and of improving the teaching of mathematics.

J. W. Young and J. A. Foberg have been selected by the committee to devote their whole time to this work during the coming year. To this end they have been granted leaves of absence by their respective institutions.

The following work is being undertaken immediately:

1. To make a careful study of all that has been said and done, here and abroad, in the way of improving the teaching of mathematics during recent years.

2. To prepare a bibliography of recent literature on the subject.

3. To make a collection of recent textbooks on secondary-school and elementary-college mathematics.

4. To prepare reports on various phases of the problem of reform. Eleven such reports are already under way and others are being projected.

5. To establish contact with existing organizations of teachers with the purpose of organizing a nation-wide study and discussion of the committee's problem. The committee hopes to induce such organizations to adopt this problem as their program for the year. It is ready to furnish material for programs and also to furnish speakers at meetings. The organizations in their turn are to furnish the committee with the results of their discussions and any action taken. In this way it is hoped that the committee can act as a clearing house for ideas and projects and can be of assistance in coordinating possible divergent views entertained by different organizations.

6. To promote the formation of new organizations of teachers where such organizations are needed and do not exist at the present time. These organizations may be sectional, covering a considerable area, or they may consist merely of local clubs which can meet at frequent intervals for the discussion and study of the problems of the committee. It is hoped that such clubs can be organized in all the larger cities where they do not already exist.

7. To establish contact directly with individual teachers. The committee feels that this is necessary in addition to its work through organiza-

tions in order to induce such individuals to become active and in order to make the work through organizations effective. Plans for establishing this contact with individuals on a large scale are under consideration, possibly through the publication of a bulletin. These plans, however, are as yet in a tentative stage.

Organizations can be of assistance by sending to the committee a statement of the name of the organization, its officers for the coming year, the time and place of its meetings, and information regarding proposed programs. If any organization has within the last ten years issued any reports on topics connected with the work of the committee, copies of such reports should, if available, be sent both to Mr. Young and Mr. Foberg. If this is impossible, a statement regarding the character and place of publication of any such reports would be welcome.

Individuals can be of assistance—

1. By keeping the committee informed of matters of interest that come to their notice;
2. By suggesting ways in which the committee can be helpful;
3. By sending to the committee in duplicate reprints of any articles they publish on subjects connected with the committee's work;
4. By furthering the work of the committee among their colleagues, organizing discussions, etc.

It is not too much to say that the existence of this committee with its present resources gives the teachers of mathematics, both individually and through their organizations, a unique opportunity to do really constructive work of the highest importance in the direction of reform. They can surely be counted on to make the most of this opportunity.

BUREAU OF EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH, UNIVERSITY OF ILLINOIS

The University of Illinois has organized a Bureau of Educational Research. This bureau is prepared to supply copies of all of the standard tests to any school which wishes to secure

them. It has published a list of the material which it has in stock. This list can be had by writing to the bureau at Urbana, Illinois.

Included in the list of standard tests are a number of high-school tests, especially in the field of mathematics and English composition. Tests in reading which have not heretofore been widely used in high schools are also included in the list. In this way high-school teachers can readily get the material with which to determine the ability of high-school students in the fundamental art which is required for success in all of the lines of work in the high school. There can be no doubt that high schools will increasingly in the future test the results of instruction. They have long been behind the elementary schools in developing this kind of scientific work. Any agency which facilitates the testing of school results will be of service both to the secondary schools and to the schools below.

### CO-OPERATIVE MEDICAL EDUCATION

The University of Cincinnati was the center at which part-time work in the engineering school originated and from which it spread to other institutions throughout the country. The university has now undertaken to develop a plan of education for students of industrial medicine along lines somewhat analogous to those laid out for engineering education. A statement from the National Safety Council may be quoted in part to describe this plan.

> The National Safety Council announces an affiliation with the University of Cincinnati for the purpose of carrying out a program that is unique—almost radical—both to the fields of education and accident prevention and that opens a new and promising avenue for the service of the council.
>
> Briefly, this program includes the establishment of an industrial medicine division at the University of Cincinnati where medical students and graduate physicians will be given special training not only in industrial medicine, but in industrial relations, including sanitation and all the fundamentals of

safety work as well. This school, which is already under way, is unusual in many respects chief among which are the following:

1. The student physicians alternately spend part of their time in school and part in the field among the industries of Cincinnati, Dayton, and other Ohio cities receiving actual experience in the work for which they are being prepared.

2. The enterprize was conceived by, and is being financed by, the industrial leaders of Cincinnati and the vicinity, who have guaranteed a fund of about $40,000 annually for five years.

3. In addition to the regular courses special courses will be given in such subjects as (1) the medical, industrial, and safety problems arising from the coming of women into industry, (2) public health, and (3) hospital management.

4. The facilities of the school include an industrial research laboratory where physical conditions menacing the health of employees arising in industry will be brought up for investigation and solution. How can dust be eliminated in a certain plant? Is this gas injurious? How can the lighting problem of a peculiarly arranged factory be solved? These and all similar problems arising among the industries represented among the students and sponsors of the Department of Industrial Medicine will be tackled at the industrial research laboratory.

This plan being carried out jointly by the College of Medicine of the University of Cincinnati and the Cincinnati Local Council of the National Safety Council which represents the first attempt in America to train doctors for industrial work, in the opinion of C. W. Price, general manager of the National Safety Council, promises much for other cities.

---

### ACCOUNTING SYSTEM FOR HIGH-SCHOOL ORGANIZATION FUNDS

*High School, Elgin, Illinois.*—

Brings funds of all organizations under one treasurership with one bank account and one set of books kept by commercial department. Advantages: (1) places purely high-school business in the business department; (2) furnishes excellent practical work for upper students in bookkeeping; (3) makes exact status of all funds instantly accessible; (4) centralizes accounting of entire school in a business office; (5) enables high school

to have definite business policy; (6) brings commercial department into closer touch with business of the city; (7) commercial department has real bills to pay, real discounts to make, real bank deposits to make, real checks to draw, a real cash book to balance with bank, real letters to write. Elgin High School has seventeen funds; handled $19,000 in 1918–19.

L. J. JOLLY

---

### THE SCHOOL PAPER

*Main Central Institute, Pittsfield, Maine.—*

One of the teachers has a contract with manager of local weekly paper for one full sheet for 36 weeks of school session. Manager pays teacher $0.75 for every subscription, and allows a small commission for advertisements on the school page. Plan netted $80 profits last year. Senior English class each month elects editors for seven departments; one hundred and sixty students appear on the board each year. Alumni editor serves throughout the year. Most of material written and revised as assignments in various English classes. Most important items read before the Senior English class and finally prepared for press by the Board of Editors.

S. R. OLDHAM

---

### NUMERICAL PROBLEM IN PHYSICS

*Schenley High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania.—*

Tests mimeographed from an article in the *School Review*,[1] were given to students without warning more than four months after study of mechanics had closed. Time allowed was exactly forty minutes. No pupil solved 2, 7, or 14; they had not been instructed in the necessary theory. Many might have solved 14 had it been studied in metric system, and many reached an answer for 7 that would have been correct had there

[1] D. P. RANDALL, J. C. CHAPMAN, and C. W. SUTTON, "The Place of the Numerical Problem in High-School Physics," *School Review*, XXVI (1918), 39–43.

been no pressure on the surface of the water. The total number of pupils taking the test was 28—26 boys and 2 girls. The median age was 17 years.

| Question | Number | | Percentage | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Attempts | Right | Attempts | Right |
| 1..... | 24 | 8 | 86 | 29 |
| 2..... | 27 | ..... | 97 | ..... |
| 3..... | 25 | 15 | 89 | 53 |
| 4..... | 27 | 14 | 97 | 50 |
| 5..... | 22 | 9 | 79 | 32 |
| 6..... | 16 | 8 | 57 | 29 |
| 7..... | 16 | ..... | 57 | ..... |
| 8..... | 21 | 15 | 75 | 53 |
| 9..... | 21 | 13 | 75 | 46 |
| 10..... | 27 | 27 | 97 | 100 |
| 11..... | 23 | 11 | 82 | 39 |
| 12..... | 14 | 4 | 50 | 14 |
| 13..... | 14 | 2 | 50 | 7 |
| 14..... | 13 | ..... | 46 | ..... |
| Mean... | 21 | 9 | 75 | 32 |

It appears that the authors of the *School Review* article are correct in their conclusion that the numerical problem has not been sufficiently stressed in that city; but a score of 15 per cent does not represent real ability of the pupils tested. The time allowed was insufficient, especially if test was given long after the subject has been completed. Even pupils of exceptional ability require time for recalling principles, especially if the principles involved are stated in terms unlike the ones of original study.

P. M. Dysart

## News Items from the School of Education of the University of Chicago

Readers of the *School Review* who have attended the University frequently make inquiries in regard to the positions now held by former students in the Department of Education. The names of students who received appointments last year in departments of education, normal schools, and other teacher-training institutions appear in the list which follows. This list is by no means complete. In addition to the specific information which the list supplies, it indicates the wide variety of opportunities which are open to students who are qualified for positions in professional institutions. Lists of students who have filled other types of positions will be published from time to time.

1. College and university instructors in education:

W. H. Burton, assistant professor of education, Washington State College, Pullman, Washington.

Guy T. Buswell, assistant professor of education, Hamline University, St. Paul, Minnesota.

L. V. Cavins, professor of education, University of West Virginia, Morgantown, West Virginia.

Olive Gray, instructor in education, University of Chattanooga, Chattanooga, Tennessee.

Leonard V. Koos, professor of secondary education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota. Professor Koos has held a similar position in the University of Washington during the last two years.

W. L. Richardson, head of the department of education, Butler College, Indianapolis, Indiana.

M. J. Stormzand, instructor in education, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois.

C. G. Vannest, instructor in methods of teaching history, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana. Mr. Vannest also serves as teacher of history in the University High School and as supervisor of practice teaching in the same department.

2. Instructors in education in normal schools and directors or superintendents of normal training schools:

Alberta Brackney, director of the training school at the Forestry State Normal School, Bottineau, North Dakota.

Charlotte M. Ismay, instructor in the State Normal School at Fort Wayne, Indiana.

Jessie A. Lane, instructor in principles and methods of teaching, State Normal School, Fort Wayne, Indiana.

Jane L. McGrath, assistant principal in the training school, State Normal School, Platteville, Wisconsin.

W. G. Reeder, head of the department of education, State Normal School, Moorhead, Minnesota.

Anna A. Schnieb, instructor in intermediate methods, Southeast Missouri State Teachers College, Cape Girardeau, Missouri.

Cora Jean Smith, instructor in methods, State Normal School, Valley City, North Dakota.

J. B. Shouse, superintendent of the training school, State Normal School, Peru, Nebraska.

N. H. Schutte, professor of education and director of demonstration school, State Normal School, Kirksville, Missouri.

F. B. Fitzpatrick, professor of education, Radford State Normal School, East Radford, Virginia.

3. Critic teachers in training schools:

Sara L. Boom, fifth-grade critic teacher, State Normal School, Oshkosh, Wisconsin.

Delia Briggs, fifth-grade critic teacher, State Normal School, Bowling Green, Ohio.

Josephine Fitzgerald, supervisor of grammar grades, State Normal School, Cheney, Washington.

Eleanora Harris, supervisor of mathematics in the training school, State Normal School, Warrensburg, Missouri.

Mary Ellen Icke, supervisor of arithmetic, Kansas State Normal School, Emporia, Kansas.

Bennie Lee Stone, normal training, Downs High School, Downs, Kansas.

# Educational Writings

## I. BOOK NOTES AND REVIEWS[1]

*Discourses on the aims of college education.*—Among the presidents of our higher institutions of learning, Dr. Charles Franklin Thwing,[2] of Western Reserve University, is one of the most prolific writers. To his already long list of some twenty books on college subjects, he now adds another, *The College Gateway*. The volume contains fifteen baccalaureate sermons delivered between the years 1903 and 1918. An idea of the contents of the book may be gathered from a selection of chapter headings: "Entering into Life," "Sympathy, the Solution of the Social Problem," "Some Rewards of College Training," "The American College Student and the Universities of the World," "College Life a Prophecy of Life Itself," and "The Effects of the War on College Women."

President Thwing is recognized as one of the staunch defenders of the literary college. At a time when critics are predicting the disintegration of this institution, are pointing out the professionalization of a large portion of the student body and the aimlessness and idleness of a good share of the rest, are noting the independent organization of professional departments and the development of independence in some that are not professional, Mr. Thwing pleads the case for the college with undiminished optimism.

Whatever be one's attitude toward the contentions of the critics, it requires an idealist of some calibre to claim the following educational values for the average American college training:

"The college graduate is trained to reason; to find sound premises; to rise through logical processes from these premises to correct conclusions. He is trained to detect and discard fallacies. He knows that the terms of reasoning should be exact; that the middle term should be always distributed, and the conclusion should contain no more and no less than the premises. His study of formal logic has helped him to rational processes. His study of the ancient classics has given him discrimination, judiciousness, judicialness.

[1] Reviews contributed by F. S. Breed where not otherwise indicated.

[2] Charles Franklin Thwing, *The College Gateway*. Boston: The Pilgrim Press, 1918 Pp. 277. $1.50.

His study of mathematics has trained in him a sense of the certainty of absolute truth, as the study of all human sciences has given him a sense of the uncertainty of all truth which is not absolute. Economics has taught him the complexity of human phenomena, history the vastness and variety of human experience, and philosophy the mysteriousness of his own existence. Literature of every order and age has trained him into appreciations, intellectual and ethical." [p. 82.]

Ethically and religiously, the book is safe and inspiring. High-school teachers can find many suggestions in the discourses for talks to pupils on the aims of college education.

---

*An anthology of the molders of French educational thought.*—This is a volume which aims to "portray to American readers the fundamental ideals on which the French system of education is grounded." While attending the International Congress on Education held at Oakland, California, in 1915, M. Ferdinand Buisson and Mr. F. E. Farrington[1] noticed to what extent the educators of their respective countries were uninformed of each other's ideals. Accordingly they conceived the plan of editing two volumes of selections, one from representative French educators for American readers, and the other from representative American educators for French readers. *French Educational Ideals of Today*, recently published by the World Book Company, represents the American part of the plan. The fifty-four selections in the book are gathered from some thirty-four French writers, many of them persons of great distinction. The topics are scattered over a wide range, from the infant school to the lycée. The casual American reader will be impressed by the prominence of the religious problem in the book, the intense belief in moral instruction, the repeated emphasis on disciplinary values, the marked interest in civic education, and the splendid patriotic fervor everywhere.

The strong disciplinary trend in the thinking represented in the book is well brought out in a selection from Louis Liard on "The Place of Science in Secondary Education." It sounds very like a passage from President Eliot advocating reform in secondary education or voicing a defense of Mr. Flexner's modern school. Liard says, "It seems to me easy to avoid these obstacles, if one is convinced that the teaching of the natural sciences in the lycée should be an educational discipline, and not a burdening of the memory. First, accurate perception of facts will cultivate the faculty of observation; then, comparison of facts will cultivate the faculty of comparison; finally,

[1] FERDINAND BUISSON and FREDERIC ERNEST FARRINGTON, *French Educational Ideals of Today*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1919. Pp. xii+326. $2.25.

following these comparisons, practical connections established between facts will cultivate the faculty of generalization. . . . ." [p. 264.]

Many readers will undoubtedly be interested in the masterly discussion of the teaching of composition and literature by Gustave Larson, the account of "The Mutual Benefit Association in the School" by Edouard Petit, and the vigorous article on "The Schoolmaster" by Georges Clemenceau, to say nothing of other important selections. Our readers will probably be disappointed in the small attention given to the scientific movement in the study of educational problems and the vocational-education movement. They will again be pleased, however, to learn that marriages between teachers, a custom that seems to be fairly prevalent in France, receives the happy benediction of that valorous people.

Special attention should also be invited to the program of moral education presented in one of the articles by Jules Ferry. Our schools have considerable to learn in the sphere of moral education.

The book appears with an introduction by Commissioner P. P. Claxton. It is timely and should be followed by publications that will acquaint us more fully with the principles and details of method which are being used in France to attain the educational aims of their democracy.

---

*A brief scientific survey of the field of psychology.*—After mentioning the extensive and intensive studies of educational psychologists in the field of tests, scales, and the mechanics of reading and writing, Professor Hunter,[1] in his new *General Psychology*, adds: "Instruction and training in these professional problems are supplanting the earlier work, the attitude of which was that educational psychology consisted in general psychology plus a few more or less obvious applications to school-room conditions."

In fact, educational psychology, under the leadership of Freeman and others, has already made its declaration of independence. From a study of mind in general we have passed to a study of educational processes in particular. General psychology has failed to connect intimately and effectively with the teacher's problems. And yet it is not to be assumed from this that a general psychology of the right sort has no value for educators. Surely educational specialists will profit from an accurate knowledge of logical boundaries of the relations that exist between their own and other portions of the general psychologic area. Professor Hunter has successfully mapped and clearly described this whole region in 351 pages. Following a brief

[1] WALTER S. HUNTER, *General Psychology*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1919. Pp. xiii+351. $2.15.

introduction, the treatment is divided into two parts. Part I, entitled "Fields of Psychology," deals in succession with animal psychology, individual and applied psychology, abnormal psychology, and social and racial psychology. Part II, entitled "Normal Human Adult Psychology," contains chapters on attention, the nervous system, reflex action and instinct, the emotions, the affective processes, sensory processes, imagination, memory, and thinking.

The book is commendable for its frequent and definite references to experimental data, elimination of much unnecessary "gossip and wrangle about opinions," the inclination to favor behaviorism as against structuralism, and a happy combination of brevity and inclusiveness.

The emphasis on experimental facts is an exceedingly healthy one. Practice here lags behind conviction. The author might well have carried this emphasis further. For example, if one desires to study the relation between *intention to remember* and *retention*, no definite experimental data are provided. Or again, in the section on transfer of training, where the author says, "*Transfer does occur on a large scale*," the valuable quantitative studies of this problem are not carefully analyzed for their specific results—in fact, not a single experimental study is mentioned. By way of further suggestion it should be added that the book might be improved for teaching purposes by the addition of a series of problems at the end of each chapter.

Professor Hunter has admirably achieved his purpose to give a "comprehensive view of the field" with constant reference to the experimental facts, and has therefore performed a distinct service for all who touch the problems of psychology.

---

*Some elementary facts about the English elementary school.*—Superintendents of schools and, indeed, in these days of rapid growth of the American intermediate school, high-school principals may be interested in Mr. A. W. Newton's "guide book" of elementary education in England.[1] The author has had an unusual opportunity to observe the schools about which he writes, having served as divisional inspector, inspector of training colleges, and as assistant secretary of the Board of Education.

The book presents a simple, practical account of the recent history and the present status of many important educational usages. The chapters deal with such topics as the educational machinery of England, the passing of the Mundella Code, school hygiene, infant schools, the teaching of the

[1] A. W. Newton, *The English Elementary School*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1919. Pp. viii+299. $2.00.

traditional subjects, manual instruction, physical training, propagandism, the training of teachers, elementary teaching as a profession, school inspection, and problems for research.

One finds in the text many interesting sidelights on the English elementary school and points of contrast with the American. Centralized organization in England allows a wide range for local liberty; the teacherage stands out as a more prominent institution with them than with us; "the dual desk is getting more and more common, and the single desk is to be found here and there;" chairs and tables are rather coming into favor in the infant schools; these infant schools are not kindergartens, that is, Froebelian, in the strict sense of the term; there is sentiment in favor of dropping the term "kindergarten"; in discipline the schools are approaching a "balance between the doctrine that a child should exercise his own activities in his own way, and the opposite doctrine that he should be coerced into being diligent and virtuous"; the teacher keeps a punishment book and enters therein all cases of corporal punishment; there is still a place for the use of the cane "on proper occasion"; the Board of Education neither issues nor approves schoolbooks; needlework is much the oldest of the manual subjects and was firmly established in early Victorian times; laundry work receives considerable attention; woodwork has a cultural aim and stresses the making of joints; the teaching of trades in elementary schools has no serious advocates—"were it possible it would almost certainly be protested against on trade-union grounds"; physical training consists of formal drills and exercises very similar to those followed in the army; a successful program of "amalgamation" among rural schools seems hopeless; the National Union of Teachers includes a very large proportion of the teachers; and finally, the teacher is now generously pensioned without contributing to the state pension fund.

The book has its defects, of course. The first chapter or two are a bit dreary; the treatment of school buildings could be helpfully clarified by the addition of a few diagrams, and the discussion of methods in fundamental subjects is often far from fundamental. But, withal, this book is a cautious conservative record based on the experience of one who has carefully observed the elementary schools of England, and will be read by many who are interested in the problems of elementary education in America.

---

*A study containing some suggestions for training the emotions.*—No portion of the field of psychology has offered greater resistance to the investigator than feeling. Münsterburg was once heard to say that the writing of his general psychology was being postponed because he could not make up his

mind about certain problems in feeling. One of the more recent endeavors to add to our accumulation of certainties in this uncertain region appears as No. 19 in Warwick & York's series of Educational Psychology Monographs, and is entitled *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Anger*.[1] "This work is an attempt to study systematically the emotion of anger in relation to the behavior of consciousness, the ideas and feelings associated in the development of anger, the reactive side of consciousness under the influence of anger, individual differences in behavior, manner of the disappearance and diminution of anger, devices used in the control and facilitation of the emotion, and the conscious after-effects including the inter-relation of anger and other feelings, emotions and attitudes which follow." [Preface.] The study was inspired mainly by Stanley Hall. The method was "to observe anger introspectively as it appears in every-day life." The subjects were ten graduate students of Clark University and two persons outside the University. Reports of these subjects are organized and described in considerable detail. Three rather definite types of anger are distinguished, according to the "mental situations from which anger develops": (1) anger arising from feelings of irritation; (2) anger due to negative self-feelings; (3) anger springing from social sentiments involving justice and fairness. The author believes in the utility of anger and is of the opinion that "the boy who has not the capacity for anger should be deliberately taught it by some means." This reminds the reviewer of a one-time classroom dialogue between himself and a fair, but fearless, pupil who argued all too plausibly that the aim in the education of fear should be the elimination of fear. The instructor felt vaguely that fear somehow was naturally selected because of its value to the organism and still possessed utility, but he was without the facts. The facts needed in a case of this kind might well be included in a volume like Professor Richardson's. Dr. W. B. Cannon in a study of bodily changes in fear and rage has found that these emotional states are accompanied by the stimulation of the adrenal glands. As a result adrenalin is poured into the blood stream, which drives the blood to the skeletal muscles, decreases muscular fatigue, and also decreases the time required for the coagulation of the blood. The utility of these reactions is manifest. It would seem not improbable that other investigators will make valuable contributions through similar objective studies.

Professor Richardson's study is a commendable attempt in a field where research is badly needed.

---

[1] Roy Franklin Richardson, *The Psychology and Pedagogy of Anger*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1918. Pp. 100. $1.25.

*A survey of public education in Alabama.*[1]—The statewide survey of public education is proving to be an instrument of great power. A recent case in point is the survey of Delaware by the General Education Board. As a result of the survey a new educational code has been written into the law of the state, a code which at one stroke abolishes all sorts of outworn practices and supplies the state in sweeping fashion with a more rational set of standards and requirements. The survey and code are almost certain to give education in Delaware a tremendous uplift. It is significant that since this survey report was published Mr. Pierre S. du Pont has given the state of Delaware $2,000,000 to assist in the reconstruction of school buildings.

We now have the report of the survey in Alabama. The report is issued as a bulletin of the United States Bureau of Education under the title *An Educational Study of Alabama.* The study was directed by the bureau, the work of the various divisions being in charge, for the most part, of specialists and collaborators of the bureau. The study was made in a remarkably brief period. The Alabama Education Commission met for the first time March 11, 1919; the Commissioner of Education began his work on March 12, and on June 11 the report was presented to the Education Commission. Despite the rapidity with which the work was done, the bureau has been able, through the employment of a large body of experts, to make a rather complete investigation of the educational situation in the state.

The report is organized under the following headings: General School Organization and Administration, History of Education in Alabama, Rural and Agricultural Education, City Schools, Higher Education, Preparation of Teachers, and Special Education.

If one desires a picture of education at a low ebb, let him read this report. In 1910, we are informed, 23 per cent of the whole population of the state above 10 years of age was illiterate. During the selective draft Alabama had approximately 10,000 young men of draft age wholly illiterate. The remedy for this situation seems to be, first of all, money. And yet, while the constitution permits the assessed valuation of property to reach "60 per cent of its fair and reasonable cash value," at the present time it is assessed for scarcely more than a third of this. The report, of course, makes it clear that the problem is a complex one. There is the negro who constitutes 42.5 per cent of the total population. There is the century-old disposition of the people to look upon education as a matter of private responsibility. There

[1] *An Educational Study of Alabama*, Bulletin No. 41. Washington: United States Bureau of Education, 1919. Pp. 522.

is also that old relic (the report is more gracious) who has no need of schools for his children. One well-to-do planter expressed himself thus: "I have got along without any book learning myself, so I guess the children can too; besides, if I sent the youngsters to school, they might come to look down on their old 'pap.' "

Under such conditions one is not surprised when it is reported that only 35 per cent of the whole school population is in daily attendance, that 54 per cent are over-age, that 29 per cent of 3,648 rural and village schools have no toilet facilities whatever, that about one out of every four children of school age in the state is infected with hookworm, that 80 per cent of the white teachers of the state and over 95 per cent of the colored teachers have had no special training for their work, etc.

What kind of teaching do future American citizens receive in Alabama? After discussing conditions in the rural schools, the report proceeds: "It is practically useless and impossible under such circumstances to discuss the instruction observed in relation to fundamental principles of teaching. Modern ideas and methods are quite disregarded, and do not apparently enter into the consideration of the majority of teachers. The recitation is a lesson-hearing process in which the pupil is expected to memorize the material found in the textbook and repeat it. In many cases the teacher is himself unfamiliar with it, and entirely unprepared either as to subject-matter or methods of instruction." [p. 114.]

While descriptions of instruction like the foregoing are helpful, it is regrettable that the survey staff did not go a step further and by the use of modern methods of measurement determine the actual results of such teaching. They are no doubt poor. Precisely how poor, no one knows.

As in the case of the Delaware survey, the Alabama survey report has become the basis, as it deserves, for a new educational code which has the strong support of the governor and will probably be adopted.

---

*A physiology for high schools.*[1]—*Healthful Living* is the title of a well-written physiology of the standard type. There is nothing striking in its treatment, no departures from the ordinary to make it worthy of special notice. The style is fairly simple, the science is accurate, the illustrations are about such as are usually included in a physiology. The author uses effectively recent statistics of mortality, morbidity, habit formation, etc. There is a somewhat larger proportion of anatomical material than has been included in most of the recent texts. One good feature is the addition of a

[1] J. F. Williams, *Healthful Living*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1919. Pp. xii+431.

glossary to each chapter and the difficult terms are starred in the text indicating thereby that they are to be found in the glossary. Occasionally a term has been missed, as "viceroptosis," in the explanation of Fig. 115. The bright pupil may infer its meaning from the illustration, but it is sufficiently uncommon to deserve a glossary definition. The "exercises," really review questions, and the laboratory experiments in each chapter are reasonably satisfactory, the latter being those with which the teacher is usually familiar through his college work in the subject.

E. R. DOWNING

---

## II. CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED DURING THE PAST MONTH

### A. GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

HUNTER, WALTER S. *General Psychology*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1919. Pp. xiii+351. $2.15.

MARCH, NORAH H. *Towards Racial Health*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., 1919. Pp. xiii+320. $2.00.

PARKER, SAMUEL CHESTER. *General Methods of Teaching in Elementary Schools*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xx+332. $1.60.

### B. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR ELEMENTARY-GRADE TEACHERS AND PUPILS

HAMILTON, SAMUEL. *Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic*, First Book. New York: American Book Co., 1919. pP. 368. $0.52.

HAMILTON, SAMUEL. *Hamilton's Essentials of Arithmetic*, Second Book. New York: American Book Co., 1919. Pp. 432+xxvii. $0.68.

HIGGINS, JAMES. *Stories of Great Heroes*. New York: Macmillan Co. 1919. Pp. xv+142. $0.60.

MEYER, ZOE. *In the Green Fields*. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1919. Pp. viii+143. $0.60.

WYNNE, ANNETTE. *For Days and Days*. New York: Frederick A. Stokes Co., 1919. Pp. xxvi+276. $2.00.

### C. BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

EWART, FRANK C. *Cuba Y Las Costumbres Cubanas*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xiv+157.

GREENE, GEORGE G. *Exercises in Lettering—Slant Gothic.* Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1 18. Pp. 31. $0.10.

GREENE, GEORGE G. *Exercises in Lettering—Vertical Gothic.* Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1919. Pp. 31. $0.10.

LAING, GRAHAM A. *An Introduction to Economics.* New York: Gregg Publishing Co., 1919. Pp. xi+454.

LIPPS, OSCAR H. *Daily Lesson Plan Book for Vocational Instructors.* Milwaukee, W sconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1919. $0.80.

RIVAROL, ANTOINE. *De l'Universalite de la Langue Francaise.* Edited by W. W. Comfort. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. vi+62. $0.50.

SEAMAN, GEORGE W. *Progressive Steps in Architectural Drawing.* Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1919. Pp. 63. $1.25.

### D. PUBLICATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF EDUCATION AND SIMILAR MATERIAL IN PAMPHLET FORM

Recent issues of the Bureau of Education:

Bulletin No. 15, 1919—*The Adjustment of the Teaching Load in a University.*

Bulletin No. 20, 1919—*The Rural Teacher of Nebraska.*

Bulletin No. 22, 1919—*A Survey of Higher Education*, 1916–1918.

Bulletin No. 39, 1919—*Training Little Children.*

Bulletin No. 48, 1919—*Educational Hygiene.*

*Report of the Calcutta University Commission, 1917–19.* Part I, Analysis of Present Conditions (Vols. I, II, III, pp. xxv+437, xxii+383, xviii+318); Part II, Recommendations of the Commission (Vols. IV, V, pp. xxiv+464, xx+423). Calcutta, India: Superintendent Government Printing, 1919.

### E. MISCELLANEOUS PUBLICATIONS

GENUNG, JOHN FRANKLIN. *A Guidebook to the Biblical Literature.* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1919. Pp. xv+686. $2.50.

GRELLING, RICHARD. *The Crime*, Vol. III, War Aims. Translated by Alexander Gray. New York: George H. Doran Co., 1919. Pp. vi+377. $2.50.

GRELLING, RICHARD. *The Crime*, Vol. IV, Belgium Documents. Translated by Alexander Gray. New York: George H. Doran Co., 1919. Pp. vi+345. $2.50.

*The League of Nations.* Edited by Stephen Pierce Duggan. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press. Pp. xv+357. $2.50.